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AN  
ABRIDGMENT  
OF  
GOLDSMITH'S  
HISTORY OF ENGLAND,  
FROM  
THE INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR,  
TO  
THE DEATH OF GEORGE II.  
AND  
CONTINUED TO THE CLOSE OF THE YEAR 1828.

GENUINE EDITION, STEREOTYPED.

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# THE HISTORY OF ENGL.

## CHAPTER I.

### OF BRITAIN,

*From the Invasion of Julius Cæsar to the Æ  
Romans.*

BRITAIN was but very little known to the rest of the world before the time of the Romans. The coasts opposite Gaul were frequented by merchants who traded thither for such commodities as the natives were able to produce, and who, after a time, possessed themselves of all the maritime places where they had at first been permitted to reside. Finding the country fertile, and commodiously situated for trade, they settled upon the sea-side, and introduced the practice of agriculture. But the inland inhabitants of the country, who considered themselves as the lawful possessors of the soil, avoided all correspondence with men, whom they viewed as intruders upon their property.

The inland inhabitants are represented as extremely numerous, living in cottages thatched with straw, and feeding large herds of cattle. They lived mostly upon milk, or flesh procured by the chase. What clothes they wore to cover any part of their bodies, were usually the skins of beasts; but the arms, legs, and thighs, were left naked, and were usually painted blue. Their hair, which was long, flowed down upon their backs and shoulders, while their beards were kept close shaven, except upon the upper lip, where it was suffered to grow. The dress of savage nations is every where nearly alike, being calculated rather to inspire terror than to excite respect.

As to their government, it consisted of several small principalities, under different leaders; and this seems to be the earliest mode of dominion with which mankind are

acquainted, and is deduced from the natural privileges of paternal authority. Upon great and imminent dangers, a commander in chief was chosen by common consent in a general assembly, and to him was committed the conduct of the general interest in peace or war.

Their forces consisted chiefly of foot, and yet they could bring a considerable number of horse into the field upon great occasions. They likewise used chariots in battle, which, with short scythes fastened to the ends of the axle-trees, inflicted terrible wounds, spreading horror and devastation wheresoever they drove. Nor were the warriors who conducted them unemployed: these darted their javelins against the enemy, ran along the beam, leaped on the ground, resumed their seat, stopped, or turned their horses at full-speed, and sometimes cunningly retreated, to draw the enemy into confusion.

The religion of the Britons was one of the most considerable parts of their government; and the Druids, who were the guardians of it, possessed great authority among them. No species of superstition was ever more terrible than their's; besides the severe penalties which they were permitted to inflict in this world, they inculcated the eternal transmigration of souls, and thus extended their authority as far as the fears of their votaries. They sacrificed human victims, which they burned in large wicker idols, made so capacious as to contain a multitude of persons at once, who were thus consumed together. To these rites they added the austerity of their manners, and the simplicity of their lives. They lived in woods, caves, and hollow trees; their food was acorns and berries, and their drink water; by these arts they were not only respected but almost adored by the people, whose manners took a tincture from the discipline of their teachers. Their lives were simple, but they were marked with cruelty and fierceness; their courage was great, but neither dignified by mercy nor perseverance.

The Britons had long remained in this rude but independent state, when Cæsar, having victoriously overrun Gaul, and willing still farther to extend his fame, determined upon the conquest of a country that seemed to promise an easy triumph. Accordingly he set sail for Britain about midnight, and the next morning arrived on the coast

near Dover, where he saw the rocks and cliffs covered with armed men to oppose his landing.

The Britons had chosen Cassibelaunus for their commander in chief; but the petty princes under his command, either from suspicion or jealousy, threw off their allegiance. Some of them fled with their forces into the internal parts of the kingdom, others submitted to Cæsar, till at length Cassibelaunus himself, thus weakened, resolved upon making what terms he was able while he yet had power to keep the field. The conditions offered by Cæsar, and accepted by him were, that he should send to the continent double the number of hostages at first demanded, and that he should acknowledge subjection to the Romans. Cæsar, however, was obliged to return once more to compel the Britons to complete their stipulated treaty.

The next emperor, Augustus, formed a design of visiting Britain, but was diverted from it by an unexpected revolt of the Pannonians. Tiberius, wisely judging the empire already too extensive, made no attempt upon Britain. From that time the natives began to improve in all the arts which contribute to the advancement of human nature. The wild extravagancies of Caligula, by which he threatened Britain with an invasion, served rather to expose him to ridicule than the island to danger. At length the Romans, in the reign of Claudius, began to think seriously of reducing them under their dominion. The expedition for this purpose was conducted in the beginning by Plautius and other commanders, with that success which usually attended the Roman arms.

Caractacus was the first who seemed willing, by a vigorous effort, to rescue his country, and though with inferior forces, continued, for above nine years, to oppose and harass the Romans, till, at length, he was totally routed, and taken prisoner by Ostorius Scapula, who sent him in triumph to Rome. While Caractacus was passing through Rome, he appeared no ways dejected at the amazing concourse of spectators that were gathered upon this occasion, but casting his eyes on the splendours that surrounded him, "Alas," cried he, "how is it possible that a people possessed of such magnificence at home, could envy me an humble cottage in Britain!" The emperor was affected with the British hero's misfortunes, and won by his address.

He ordered him to be unchained upon the spot, and set at liberty with the rest of the captives.

The cruel treatment of Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, drove the Britons once more into open rebellion. Prasutagus, king of the Iceni, at his death had bequeathed one half of his dominions to the Romans, and the other to his daughters, thus hoping, by the sacrifice of a part, to secure the rest in his family: but it had a different effect, for the Roman procurator immediately took possession of the whole; and when Boadicea, the widow of the deceased, attempted to remonstrate, he ordered her to be scourged like a slave, and violated the chastity of her daughters. These outrages were sufficient to produce a revolt throughout the island. The Iceni, as being the most deeply interested in the quarrel; were the first to take arms; all the other states soon followed the example; and Boadicea, a woman of great beauty and masculine spirit, was appointed to head the common forces, which amounted to two hundred and thirty thousand fighting men. These, exasperated by their wrongs, attacked several of the Roman settlements and colonies with success. Paulinus, who commanded the Roman forces, hastened to relieve London, which was already a flourishing colony; but found on his arrival that it would be requisite for the general safety to abandon that place to the merciless fury of the enemy. London was soon therefore reduced to ashes: such of the inhabitants as remained in it were massacred; and the Romans, with all other strangers, to the amount of seventy thousand, were cruelly put to the sword. Flushed with these successes, the Britons boldly came to the place where Paulinus awaited their arrival, posted in a very advantageous manner with a body of ten thousand men. The battle was obstinate and bloody. Boadicea herself appeared in a chariot with her two daughters, and harangued her army with masculine intrepidity; but the irregular and undisciplined bravery of her troops was unable to resist the cool intrepidity of the Romans. They were routed with great slaughter, eighty thousand perished in the field, and an infinite number were made prisoners, while Boadicea herself, fearing to fall into the hands of the enraged victor, put an end to her life by poison.

The general, who finally established the dominion of the Romans in this island was Julius Agricola, who governed

it during the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, and distinguished himself as well by his courage as humanity. For several years after his time a profound peace seems to have prevailed in Britain, and little mention is made of the affairs of the island by any historian. At length, however, Rome, that had for ages given laws to nations, and diffused slavery and oppression over the known world, began to sink under her own magnificence. Mankind, as if by a general consent, rose up to vindicate their natural freedom; almost every nation asserting that independence which they had been long so unjustly deprived of.

During these struggles, the British youth were frequently drawn away into Gaul, to give ineffectual succour to the various contenders for the empire, who, failing in every attempt, only left the name of tyrants behind them. In the mean time, as the Roman forces decreased in Britain, the Picts and Scots continued still more boldly to infest the northern parts; and crossing the Friths, which the Romans could not guard, in little wicker boats covered with leather, filled the country wherever they came with slaughter and consternation.

The Romans, therefore, finding it impossible to stand their ground in Britain, in the reign of the emperor Valentinian, took their last leave of the island, after being masters of it near four hundred years, and now left the natives to the choice of their own government and kings. They gave them the best instructions the calamitous times would permit, for exercising their arms and repairing their ramparts, and helped them to erect anew a wall of stone built by the emperor Severus across the island.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE SAXONS.

THE Britons being now left to themselves, considered their new liberties as their greatest calamity. The Picts and Scots uniting together, began to look upon Britain as their own, and attacked, with success, the northern wall which the Romans had built to keep off their incursions. Having thus opened to themselves a passage, they ravaged the whole

country with impunity, while the Britons sought precarious shelter in their woods and mountains.

It was in this deplorable and enfeebled state that the Britons had recourse to the Saxons, a brave people, who for their strength and valour were formidable to all the German nations around them. They were restless and bold, considered war as their trade; and were, in consequence, taught to consider victory as a doubtful advantage, but courage as a certain good. A nation, however, entirely addicted to war, has seldom wanted the imputation of cruelty, as those terrors which are opposed without fear, are often inflicted without regret. The Saxons are represented as a very cruel nation; but we must remember that their enemies have drawn the picture.

It was no disagreeable circumstance to these ambitious people to be invited into a country upon which they had for ages before been forming designs. In consequence, therefore, of Vortigern's solemn invitation, who was then king of Britain, they arrived with fifteen hundred men, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, who were brothers, and landed on the isle of Thanet. There, being joined by the British forces, they boldly marched against the Picts and Scots, who had advanced as far as Lincolnshire, and soon gained a complete victory over them.

The Saxons, however, being sensible of the fertility of the country to which they came, and the barrenness of that which they had left behind, invited over great numbers of their countrymen to become sharers in their new expedition. Accordingly, they received a fresh supply of five thousand men, who passed over in seventeen vessels, and soon made a permanent establishment in the island.

The British historians, in order to account for the easy conquest of their country by the Saxons, assign their treachery, not less than their valour, as a principal cause. They allege that Vortigern was artfully inveigled into a passion for Rowena, the daughter of Hengist; and, in order to marry her, was induced to settle the fertile province of Kent upon her father, from whence the Saxons could never after be removed. It is alleged also, that upon the death of Vortimer, which shortly happened after the victory he obtained at Eglesford, Vortigern his father was

reinstated upon the throne. It is added that this weak monarch accepting of a festival from Hengist, three hundred of his nobility were treacherously slaughtered, and himself detained as a captive.

After the death of Hengist, several other German tribes, allured by the success of their countrymen, went over in great numbers. A body of Saxons, under the conduct of Ælla and his three sons, had some time before laid the foundation of the kingdom of the South Saxons, though not without great opposition and bloodshed. This new kingdom included Surrey, Sussex, and the New Forest, and extended to the frontiers of Kent.

Another tribe of Saxons, under the command of Cerdic and his son Kenric, landed in the west, and from thence took the name of West Saxons. These met with a very vigorous opposition from the natives, but being reinforced from Germany, and assisted by their countrymen on the island, they routed the Britons; and although retarded in their progress by the celebrated king Arthur, they had strength enough to keep possession of the conquests they had already made. Cerdic, therefore, with his son Kenric, established the third Saxon kingdom in the island, namely, that of the West Saxons, including the counties of Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight.

It was in opposing this Saxon invader that the celebrated prince Arthur acquired his fame. This prince is of such obscure origin, that some authors suppose him to be the son of king Ambrosius, and others only his nephew: others again affirm that he was a Cornish prince, and son of Gurrellois, king of that province. However this be, it is certain he was a commander of great valour, and if courage alone could have repaired the miserable state of the Britons, his might have been effectual. According to the most authentic historians, he is said to have worsted the Saxons in twelve successive battles. In one of these, namely, that fought at Caerbadon, in Berks, it is asserted that he killed no less than four hundred and forty of the enemy with his own hand; but the Saxons were too numerous and powerful to be extirpated by the desultory efforts of single valour, so that a peace was the only fruit of his victories. The enemy, therefore, still gained ground; and this prince, in the decline of his life, had the mortification, from some domestic



troubles of his own, to be a patient spectator of their encroachments. His first wife had been carried off by Melnas, king of Somersetshire, who detained her a whole year at Glastonbury, until Arthur, discovering the place of her retreat, advanced with an army against the ravisher, and obliged him to give her back. In his second wife, perhaps, he might have been more fortunate, as we have no mention made of her; but it was otherwise with his third consort, who was debauched by his own nephew, Mordred. This produced a rebellion, in which the king and his traitorous kinsman meeting in battle, slew each other.

In the mean time, while the Saxons were thus gaining ground in the west, their countrymen were not less active in other parts of the island. Adventurers still continuing to pour over from Germany, one body of them, under the command of Uffa, seized upon the counties of Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk, and gave their commander the title of king of the East Angles, which was the fourth Saxon kingdom founded in Britain. Another body of these adventurers formed a kingdom under the title of East Saxony, or Essex, comprehending Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire. This kingdom, which was dismembered from that of Kent, formed the fifth Saxon principality founded in Britain. The kingdom of Mercia was the sixth which was established by these fierce invaders, comprehending all the middle counties, from the banks of the Severn to the frontiers of the two last-named kingdoms.

The seventh and last kingdom which they obtained was that of Northumberland, one of the most powerful and extensive of them all. This was formed from the union of two smaller Saxon kingdoms, the one called Bernicia, containing the present county of Northumberland, and the bishopric of Durham; the subjects of the other, called the Deiri, extending themselves over Lancashire and Yorkshire. These kingdoms were united in the person of Ethelfrid, king of Northumberland, by the expulsion of Edwin, his brother-in-law, from the kingdom of the Deiri, and the seizure of his dominions. In this manner seven kingdoms were established in Britain, which have been since well known by the name of the Saxon heptarchy.

The Saxons being thus established in all the desirable parts of the island, and having no longer the Britons to con-

tend with, began to quarrel among themselves. A country, divided into a number of petty independent principalities, must ever be subject to contention, as jealousy and ambition have more frequent incentives to operate. After a series, therefore, of battles, treasons, and stratagems, all these petty principalities fell under the power of Egbert, king of Wessex, whose merits deserved dominion, and whose prudence secured his conquests. By him all the kingdoms of the heptarchy were united under the common jurisdiction; and to give splendour to his authority, a general council of the clergy and laity was summoned at Winchester, where he was solemnly crowned king of England, by which name the united kingdom was thenceforward called. Thus, about four hundred years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain, all the petty settlements were united into one great state, and nothing offered but prospects of peace, security, and increasing refinement.

It was about this period that St. Gregory undertook to send missionaries among the Saxons to convert them to christianity. It is said, that before his elevation to the papal chair, he chanced one day to pass through the slave-market at Rome, and perceiving some children of great beauty who were set up for sale, he inquired about their country, and finding they were English Pagans, he is said to have cried out, in the Latin language, *Non Angli, sed Angeli forent, si essent Christiani*. They would not be English, but angels, had they been but christians. From that time he was struck with an ardent desire to convert that unenlightened nation, and ordered a monk, named Augustine, and others of the same fraternity, to undertake a mission into Britain.

This pious monk, upon his first landing in the isle of Thanet, sent one of his interpreters to Ethelbert, the Kentish king, declaring he was come from Rome with offers of eternal salvation. The king immediately ordered them to be furnished with all necessaries, and even visited them, though without declaring himself as yet in their favour. Augustine, however, encouraged by this favourable reception, proceeded with redoubled zeal to preach the gospel. The king openly espoused the christian religion, while his example wrought so successfully on his subjects, that numbers of them came voluntarily to be baptized, their missionary

loudly declaring against any coercive means towards their conversion. In this manner the other kingdoms, one after the other, embraced the faith.

### CHAPTER III.

#### THE INVASION OF THE DANES.

PEACE and unanimity had been scarcely established in England, when a mighty swarm of those nations called Danes, who had possessed the countries bordering on the Baltic, began to level their fury against England. A small body of them at first landed on the coasts, with a view to learn the state of the country, and having committed some small depredations, fled to their ships for safety. About seven years after this first attempt they made a descent upon the kingdom of Northumberland, where they pillaged a monastery; but their fleet been shattered by a storm, they were defeated by the inhabitants, and put to the sword. It was not till about five years after the accession of Egbert, that their invasions became truly formidable. From that time they continued with unceasing ferocity, until the whole kingdom was reduced to a state of the most distressful bondage. Though often repulsed, they always obtained their end, of spoiling the country, and carrying the plunder away. It was their method to avoid coming, if possible, to a general engagement; but, scattering themselves over the face of the country, they carried away, indiscriminately, as well the inhabitants themselves, as all their moveable possessions.

At length, however, they resolved upon making a settlement in the country, and, landing on the isle of Thanet, stationed themselves there. In this place, they kept their ground, notwithstanding a bloody victory gained over them by Ethelwolf. The reign of Ethelbald, his successor, was of no long continuance; however, in so short a space, he crowded a number of vices sufficient to render his name odious to posterity.

This prince was succeeded by his brother Ethelred, a brave commander, but whose valour was insufficient to repress the Danish incursions. In these exploits, he was always assisted by his younger brother, Alfred, afterwards surnamed the Great, who sacrificed all private resentment

to the public good, having been deprived, by the king, of a large patrimony. It was during Ethelred's reign, that the Danes, penetrating into Mercia, took up their winter quarters at Nottingham; from whence the king, attempting to dislodge them, received a wound in the battle, of which he died, leaving his brother, Alfred, the inheritance of a kingdom, that was now reduced to the brink of ruin.

The Danes had already subdued Northumberland and East Anglia, and had penetrated into the very heart of Wessex. The Mercians were united against Alfred; the dependence upon the other provinces of the empire was but precarious: the lands lay uncultivated through fear of continual incursions, and all the churches and monasteries were burned to the ground. In this terrible situation of affairs, the wisdom and virtues of one man alone were found sufficient to bring back happiness, security, and order. Alfred seemed born not only to defend his bleeding country, but even to adorn humanity. He had given very early instances of those great virtues which afterwards gave splendour to his reign; and was anointed by pope Leo, as future king, when he was sent by his father for his education to Rome. On his return, he became every day more the object of his father's fond affections; but his education was so much neglected, that he had attained the age of twelve before he was made acquainted with the lowest elements of literature; when hearing some Saxon poems read, which recounted the praise of heroes, his mind was roused, not only to obtain a similitude of glory, but also to be able to transmit that glory to posterity. Encouraged by the queen his mother, and assisted by a penetrating genius, he soon learned to read these compositions, and proceeded from thence to a knowledge of Latin authors, who directed his taste, and rectified his ambition.

He was scarcely come to the throne when he was obliged to oppose the Danes, who had seized Wilton, and were ravaging the country round. He fell upon them with a few troops, and fought a desperate battle, though with some disadvantage; but it was not in the power of misfortune to abate the king's diligence, though it repressed his power to do good. He was in a little time enabled to hazard another engagement: so that the enemy, dreading his courage and activity, proposed terms of peace, which he did not think

proper to refuse. They, by this treaty, agreed to relinquish the kingdom; but, instead of complying with their engagements, they only removed from one place to another, burning and destroying wherever they came.

Alfred, thus opposed to an enemy whom no stationary force could resist, nor treaties bind, found himself unable to repel the efforts of those ravagers, who, from all quarters, invaded him. New swarms of the enemy arrived every year upon the coast, and fresh invasions were still projected. Some of his subjects, therefore, left their country, and retired into Wales, or fled to the continent; others submitted to the conquerors, and purchased their lives by their freedom. In this universal defection, Alfred vainly attempted to remind them of the duty they owed their country and their king; but, finding his remonstrances ineffectual, he was obliged to give way to the wretched necessity of the times. Accordingly relinquishing the ensigns of his dignity, and dismissing his servants, he dressed himself in the habit of a peasant, and lived, for some time, in the house of an herdsman, who had been intrusted with the care of his cattle. In this manner, though abandoned by the world, and fearing an enemy in every quarter, he still resolved to continue in his country, to catch the slightest occasions for bringing it yet relief. In his solitary retreat, which was in the county of Somerset, at the confluence of the rivers Parret and Thone, he amused himself with music, and supported his humble lot with the hopes of better fortune. It is said, that one day, being commanded by the herdsman's wife, who was ignorant of his quality, to take care of some cakes which were baking by the fire, he happened to let them burn, for which neglect she severely upbraided him.

Previous to his retirement, Alfred had concerted measures for assembling a few trusty friends, whenever an opportunity should offer of annoying the enemy, who were now in possession of all the country. This chosen band, still faithful to their monarch, took shelter in the forests and marshes of Somerset, and from thence made occasional irruptions upon straggling parties of the enemy. Their success in this rapacious and dreary method of living encouraged many more to join their society, till, at length sufficiently augmented, they repaired to their monarch, who had, by that time, been reduced by famine to the last extremity.

Meanwhile Ubba, the chief of the Danish commanders, carried terror over the whole land, and now ravaged the country of Wales without opposition. The only place where he found resistance, on his return; was from the castle of Kenwith, into which the Earl of Devonshire had retired with a small body of troops. This gallant soldier finding himself unable to sustain a siege, and knowing the danger of surrendering to a perfidious enemy, was resolved by one desperate effort to sally out and force his way through the besiegers sword in hand. The proposal was embraced by all his followers, while the Danes, secure in their numbers and in their contempt of the enemy, were not only routed with great slaughter, but Ubba, their general, was slain.

This victory once more restored courage to the dispirited Saxons; and Alfred, taking advantage of their favourable disposition, prepared to animate them to a vigorous exertion of their superiority. He soon, therefore, apprized them of the place of his retreat, and instructed them to be ready, with all their strength, at a minute's warning. But, as none was found in whom he could confide, and who would undertake to give intelligence of the forces and posture of the enemy, he undertook this dangerous task himself. In the simple dress of a shepherd, with a harp in his hand, he entered the Danish camp, tried all his musical arts to please, and was so much admired, that he was brought even into the presence of Guthrum the Danish prince, with whom he remained some days. There he remarked the supine security of the Danes, their contempt of the English, their negligence in foraging and plundering, and their dissolute wasting of such ill-gotten booty. Having made his observations, he returned to his retreat, and detached proper emissaries among his subjects, appointing them to meet him in arms in the forest of Selwood, a summons which they gladly obeyed.

It was against the most unguarded quarter of the enemy that Alfred made his most violent attack, while the Danes, surprised to behold an army of the English, whom they considered as totally subdued, made but a faint resistance. Notwithstanding the superiority of their number, they were routed with great slaughter; and though such as escaped fled for refuge into a fortified camp in the neighbourhood, being unprovided for a siege, in less than a fortnight they were compelled to surrender at discretion. By the con-

queror's permission, those who did not chose to embrace Christianity embarked for Flanders, under the command of one of their generals, called Hastings. Guthrum, their prince, became a convert, with thirty of his nobles; and the king himself answered for him at the font.

Alfred had now attained the meridian of glory: he possessed a greater extent of glory than had ever been enjoyed by any of his predecessors; the kings of Wales did him homage for their possessions; the Northumbrians received a king of his appointing; and no enemy appeared to give him the least apprehensions, or excite an alarm. In this state of prosperity and profound tranquillity, which lasted twelve years, Alfred was diligently employed in cultivating the arts of peace, and in repairing the damages which the kingdom had sustained by war. He is said to have drawn up a body of laws; and his care for the encouragement of learning did not a little tend to improve the morals and restrain the barbarous habits of the people. When he came to the throne, he found the English sunk into the grossest ignorance and barbarism, proceeding from the continued disorders of the government, and from the ravages of the Danes. He himself complains, that, on his accession, he knew not one person south of the Thames who could so much as interpret the Latin service. To remedy this deficiency, he invited over the most celebrated scholars from all parts of Europe; he founded, or at least re-established, the University of Oxford, and endowed it with many privileges; and he gave, in his own example, the strongest incentives to study. He usually divided his time into three equal portions; one was given to sleep, and the refection of his body, diet, and exercise; another to the despatch of business, and the third to study and devotion. He made a considerable progress in the different studies of grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, architecture, and geometry. He was an excellent historian; he understood music; he was acknowledged to be the best Saxon poet of the age, and left many works behind him, some of which remain to this day. To give a character of this prince would only be, to sum up those qualities which constitute perfection. Even virtues seemingly opposite were happily blended in his disposition: persevering, yet flexible; moderate, yet enterprising; just, yet merciful; stern in command, yet gentle in conversation.

Nature also, as if desirous that such admirable qualities of mind should be set off to the greatest advantage, had bestowed on him all bodily accomplishments, vigour, dignity, and an engaging open countenance.

His second son, Edward, succeeded him on the throne. To him succeeded Athelstan, his natural son, the illegitimacy of his birth not being then deemed a sufficient obstacle to his inheriting the crown. He died at Gloucester, after a reign of sixteen years, and was succeeded by his brother Edmund, who, like the rest of his predecessors, met with disturbance from the Northumbrians on his accession to the throne, but his activity soon defeated their attempts. The resentment this monarch bore to men of an abandoned way of living, was the cause of his death. He was killed by Leoff, a robber, at a feast, where this villain had the insolence to intrude into the king's presence. His brother Edred was appointed to succeed, and, like his predecessors, this monarch found himself at the head of a rebellious and refractory people. Edred implicitly submitted to the directions of Dunstan the monk, both in church and state; and the kingdom was in a fair way of being turned into a papal province, by this zealous ecclesiastic; but he was checked in the midst of his career by the death of the king, who died of a quinsy, in the tenth year of his reign.

Edwy, his nephew, who ascended the throne, his own sons being yet unfit to govern, was a prince of great personal accomplishments, and a martial disposition. But he was now come to the government of the kingdom in which he had an enemy to contend with, against whom military virtues could be of little service. Dunstan, who had governed during the former reign, was resolved to omit nothing of his authority in this; and Edwy, immediately upon his accession, found himself involved in a quarrel with the monks, whose rage neither his accomplishments nor his virtues could mitigate.

Among other instances of their cruelty, the following is recorded: There was a lady of the royal blood, named Elgiva, whose beauty had made a strong impression upon the young monarch's heart. He had even ventured to marry her, contrary to the advice of his counsellors, as she was within the degrees of affinity prohibited by the canon law. On the day of his coronation, while his nobility were giving



a loose to the more noisy pleasures of wine and festivity in the great hall, Edwy retired to his wife's apartment, where in company with her mother, he enjoyed the more pleasing satisfaction of her conversation. Dunstan no sooner perceived his absence, than conjecturing the reason, he rushed furiously into the apartment, and upbraiding him with all the bitterness of ecclesiastical rancour, dragged him forth in the most outrageous manner. Dunstan, it seems, was not without his enemies, for the king was advised to punish this insult, by bringing him to account for the money with which he had been intrusted during the last reign. This account the haughty monk refused to give in; and was, therefore, deprived of all the ecclesiastical and civil emoluments of which he had been in possession, and banished the kingdom. His exile only served to increase the reputation of his sanctity with the people; among the rest Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, was so far transported with the spirit of party, that he pronounced a divorce between Edwy and Elgiva. The king was unable to resist the indignation of the church, and consented to surrender his beautiful wife to its fury. Accordingly, Odo sent into the palace a party of soldiers, who seized the queen, and by his orders, branded her on the face with a hot iron. Not contented with this cruel vengeance, they carried her by force into Ireland, and there commanded her to remain in perpetual exile. This injunction, however, was too distressing for that faithful woman to comply with; for being cured of her wound, and having obliterated the marks which had been made to deface her beauty, she once more ventured to return to the king, whom she still regarded as her husband. But she was taken prisoner by a party whom the archbishop had appointed to observe her conduct, and was put to death in the most cruel manner; the sinews of her legs being cut, and her body mangled, she was thus left to expire in the greatest agony. In the mean time, a secret revolt against Edwy became almost general; and Dunstan put himself at the head of the party. The malcontents at last proceeded to open rebellion, and having placed Edgar, the king's younger brother, a boy of about thirteen years of age, at their head, they soon put him in possession of all the northern parts of the kingdom. Edwy's power, and the number of his adherents, every day declin-

ing, he was at last obliged to consent to a partition of the kingdom; but his death, which happened soon after, freed his enemies from all further inquietude, and gave Edgar peaceable possession of the government.

Edgar being placed on the throne by the influence of the monks, affected to be entirely guided by their direction in all his succeeding transactions, and little worthy of notice is mentioned of him, except his amour with Elfrida, which is of too singular a nature to be omitted. Edgar had long heard of the beauty of a young lady, whose name was Elfrida, daughter of the earl of Devonshire; but, unwilling to credit common fame in this particular, he sent Ethelwald, his favourite friend, to see, and inform him if Elfrida was indeed that incomparable woman report had described her. Ethelwald arriving at the earl's, had no sooner cast his eyes upon that nobleman's daughter, than he became desperately enamoured of her himself. Such was the violence of his passion, that forgetting his master's intentions, he solicited only his own interest, and demanded for himself the beautiful Elfrida from her father in marriage. The favourite of a king was not likely to find a refusal: the earl gave his consent, and their nuptials were performed in private. Upon his return to court, which was shortly after, he assured the king, that her riches alone, and her high quality, had been the cause of her fame, and he appeared amazed how the world could talk so much and so unjustly of her charms. The king was satisfied, and no longer felt any curiosity, while Ethelwald secretly triumphed in his address. When he had, by this deceit, weaned the king from his purpose, he took an opportunity, after some time, to turn the conversation on Elfrida, representing, that, though the fortune of the earl of Devonshire's daughter would be a trifle to a king, it would be an immense acquisition to a needy subject. He therefore humbly entreated permission to pay his addresses to her, as she was the richest heiress in the kingdom. A request so seemingly reasonable was readily complied with: Ethelwald returned to his wife, and their nuptials were solemnized in public. His greatest care, however, was employed in keeping her from court; and he took every precaution to prevent her from appearing before a king so susceptible of love, while she was so capable of inspiring that passion. But it was impossible to keep his

treachery long concealed. Edgar was soon informed of the whole transaction; but dissembling his resentment, he took occasion to visit that part of the country where this miracle of beauty was detained, accompanied by Ethelwald, who reluctantly attended him thither. Upon coming near the lady's habitation, he told him that he had a curiosity to see his wife, of whom he had formerly heard so much, and desired to be introduced as his acquaintance. Ethelwald, thunderstruck at the proposal, did all in his power, but in vain, to dissuade him. All he could obtain, was permission to go before, on pretence of preparing for the king's reception. On his arrival, he fell at his wife's feet, confessing what he had done to be possessed of her charms, and conjuring her to conceal as much as possible her beauty from the king, who was but too susceptible of its power. Elfrida, little obliged to him for a passion that deprived her of a crown, promised compliance; but, prompted either by vanity or revenge, adorned her person with the most exquisite art, and called up all her beauty on the occasion. The event answered her expectations; the king no sooner saw than he loved her, and was instantly resolved to obtain her. The better to effect his intentions, he concealed his passion from the husband, and took leave with a seeming indifference; but his revenge was not the less certain and fatal. Ethelwald was some time after sent into Northumberland, upon pretence of urgent affairs, and was found murdered in a wood by the way. Some say he was stabbed by the king's own hand; some, that he only commanded the assassination; however this be, Elfrida was invited soon after to court, by the king's own order, and their nuptials were performed with the usual solemnity. The monarch died, after a reign of sixteen years, in the thirty-third year of his age, being succeeded by his son, Edward, whom he had by his first marriage with the daughter of the earl Ordmer.

Edward, surnamed the Martyr, was made king by the interest of the monks, and lived four years after his accession. In his reign, there is nothing remarkable, if we except his tragical and memorable end. Hunting one day near Corfe Castle, where Elfrida, his mother-in-law, resided, he thought it his duty to pay her a visit, although he was not attended by any of his retinue. There desiring some liquor to be brought him, as he was thirsty, while he

was yet holding the cup to his head, one of Elfrida's domestics, instructed for that purpose, stabbed him in the back. The king, finding himself wounded, put spurs to his horse; but, fainting with the loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, and his foot sticking in the stirrup, he was dragged along by his horse till he died.

Ethelred the Second, the son of Edgar and Elfrida, succeeded; a weak and irresolute monarch, incapable of governing a kingdom, or of providing for its safety. During his reign, the old and terrible enemies, the Danes, were daily gaining ground. The inexperience of Ethelred appeared to give a favourable opportunity for renewing their depredations; and, accordingly, they landed on several parts of the coast, spreading their usual terror and devastation. As they lived indiscriminately among the English, a resolution was taken for a general massacre; and Ethelred, by a policy incident to weak princes, embraced the cruel resolution of putting them all to the sword. This plot was carried on with such secrecy, that it was executed in one day, and all the Danes in England were destroyed without mercy. But this massacre, so perfidious in the contriving, and so cruel in the execution, only prepared the way for greater calamities.

While the English were yet congratulating each other upon their deliverance from an inveterate enemy, Sweyn, king of Denmark, who had been informed of their treacherous cruelties, appeared off the western coasts with a large fleet, meditating slaughter, and furious with revenge. Ethelred was obliged to fly into Normandy, and the whole country thus came under the power of Sweyn, his victorious rival.

Canute, afterwards surnamed the Great, succeeded Sweyn, as king of Denmark, and also as general of the Danish forces in England. The contest between him and Edmund Ironside, successor to Ethelred, was managed with great obstinacy and perseverance; the first battle that was fought appeared undecisive; a second followed, in which the Danes were victorious; but Edmund still having interest enough to bring a third army into the field, the Danish and English nobility, equally harassed by these convulsions, obliged their kings to come to a compromise, and to divide the kingdom between them by treaty. Canute reserved to

## HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

himself the northern parts of the kingdom, the southern parts were left to Edmund; but this prince being murdered about a month after the treaty, by his two chamberlains, at Oxford, Canute was left in peaceable possession of the whole kingdom.

Canute is represented by some historians as one of the first characters in those barbarous ages. The piety of the latter part of his life, and the resolute valour of the former, were topics that filled the mouths of his courtiers with flattery and praise. They even affected to think his power uncontrollable, and that all things would be obedient to his command. Canute, sensible of their adulation, is said to have taken the following method to reprove them:—He ordered his chair to be set on the sea-shore while the tide was coming in, and commanded the sea to retire. "Thou art under my dominion," cried he; "the land upon which I sit is mine; I charge thee, therefore, to approach no farther, nor dare to wet the feet of thy sovereign." He feigned to sit some time in expectation of submission, till the waves began to surround him; then turning to his courtiers, he observed that the titles of Lord and Master belonged only to Him whom both earth and seas were ready to obey. Thus feared and respected, he lived many years, honoured with the surname of Great for his power, but deserving it still more for his virtues. He died at Shaftesbury, in the nineteenth year of his reign, leaving behind him three sons, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute. Sweyn was crowned king of Norway; Hardicanute was put in possession of Denmark; and Harold succeeded his father on the English throne.

To Harold succeeded his brother, Hardicanute, whose title was readily acknowledged both by the Danes and the English; and upon his arrival from the continent, he was received with the most extravagant demonstrations of joy: but his violent and unjust government was of short duration: he died two years after his accession, in consequence of excess at the marriage of a Danish lord.

The disorders of the Danish monarchs once more induced the English to place a monarch of the Saxon line upon the throne; and accordingly, Edward, surnamed the Confessor, was, by the general consent, crowned king; and having long groaned under a foreign yoke, they now set no bounds to

their joy, at finding the line of their ancient monarchs restored. As he had been bred in the Norman court, he shewed, in every instance, a predilection for the customs, laws, and even the natives of that country; and among the rest of his faults, though he had married Editha, the daughter of Godwin, yet, either from mistaken piety, or fixed aversion, during his whole reign, he abstained from her bed. Thus having no legitimate issue, and being wholly engrossed, during the continuance of a long reign, with the visions of superstition, he was at last surprised by sickness, which brought him to his end, on the 5th of January, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign.

Harold, the son of a popular nobleman, whose name was Godwin, and whose intrigues and virtues seemed to give a right to his pretensions, ascended the throne without any opposition. But neither his valour, his justice, nor his popularity, were able to secure him from the misfortunes attendant upon an ill-grounded title. His pretensions were opposed by William, Duke of Normandy, who insisted that the crown of right belonged to him, it being bequeathed to him by Edward the Confessor.

William, who was afterwards called the Conqueror, was the natural son of Robert, Duke of Normandy. His mother's name was Arlette, a beautiful maid of Falaise, whom Robert fell in love with as she stood gazing at the door whilst he passed through the town. William, who was the offspring of this amour, owed a part of his greatness to his birth, but still more to his own personal merit. His body was vigorous, his mind capacious and noble, and his courage not to be repressed by apparent danger. Upon coming to his Dukedom of Normandy, though yet very young, he on all sides opposed his rebellious subjects, and repressed foreign invaders, while his valour and conduct prevailed in every action. The tranquillity which he had thus established in his dominions, induced him to extend his views: and some overtures made him by Edward the Confessor, in the latter part of his reign, who was wavering in the choice of a successor, inflamed his ambition with a desire of succeeding to the English throne. The pope himself was not behind the rest in favouring his pretensions; and either influenced by the apparent justice of his claims, or

by the hopes of extending the authority of the church, he immediately pronounced Harold an usurper. With such favourable incentives, William soon found himself at the head of a chosen army of sixty thousand men, all equipped in the most warlike and splendid manner. It was in the beginning of summer, that he embarked this powerful body on board a fleet of three hundred sail; and, after some small opposition from the weather, landed at Pevensey, on the coast of Sussex, with resolute tranquillity.

Harold, who seemed resolved to defend his right to the crown, and retain that sovereignty which he had received from the people, who had only a right to bestow it, was now returning, flushed with conquest, from defeating the Norwegians, who had invaded the kingdom, with all the forces he had employed in that expedition, and all he could invite or collect in the country through which he passed. His army was composed of active and valiant troops, in high spirits, strongly attached to their king, and eager to engage. On the other hand, the army of William consisted of the flower of all the continent, and had long been inured to danger. The men of Bretagne, Bologne, Flanders, Poictou, Maine, Orleans, France, and Normandy, were all voluntarily united under his command. England never before, nor ever since, saw two such armies drawn up to dispute its crown. The day before the battle, William sent an offer to Harold to decide the quarrel between them by single combat, and thus to spare the blood of thousands; but Harold refused, and said he would leave it to the God of armies to determine. Both armies, therefore, that night pitched in sight of each other, expecting the dawning of the next day with impatience. The English passed the night in songs and feasting; the Normans in devotion and prayer.

The next morning at seven, as soon as day appeared, both armies were drawn up in array against each other. Harold appeared in the centre of his forces, leading on his army on foot, that his men might be more encouraged, by seeing their king exposed to an equality of danger. William fought on horseback, leading on his army, that moved at once, singing the song of Roland, one of the famous chiefs of their country. The Normans began the fight with their cross-bows, which at first galled and surprised the English,

and as their ranks were close, their arrows did great execution. But soon they came to closer fight, and the English, with their bills, hewed down their adversaries with great slaughter. Confusion was spreading among the ranks, when William, who found himself on the brink of destruction, hastened with a select band to the relief of his forces. His presence restored the suspense of battle; he was seen in every place, endeavouring to pierce the ranks of the enemy, and had three horses slain under him. At length, perceiving that the English line continued impenetrable, he pretended to give ground, which, as he expected, drew the enemy from their ranks, and he was instantly ready to take advantage of their disorder. Upon a signal given, the Normans immediately returned to the charge with greater fury than before, broke the English troops, and pursued them to a rising ground. It was in this extremity, that Harold was seen flying from rank to rank, rallying and inspiring his troops with vigour; and though he had toiled all day, till near night-fall, in the front of his Kentishmen, yet he still seemed unabated in force or courage, keeping his men to the post of honour. Once more, therefore, the victory seemed to turn against the Normans, and they fell in great number, so that the fierceness and obstinacy of this memorable battle was often renewed by the courage of the leaders, whenever that of the soldiers began to slacken. Fortune, at length determined a victory that valour was unable to decide. Harold making a furious onset at the head of his troops against the Norman heavy-armed infantry, was shot into the brains by an arrow; and his two valiant brothers, fighting by his side, shared the same fate. He fell with his sword in his hand, amidst heaps of slain; and after the battle the royal corpse could hardly be distinguished among the dead.

This was the end of the Saxon monarchy in England, which had continued for more than six hundred years.

## CHAPTER IV

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.—A. D. 1066—1087.

As soon as William passed the Thames at Wallingford, Stigand, the primate, made submissions to him in the name



of the clergy; and before he came within sight of the city, all the chief nobility came into his camp, and declared an intention of yielding to his authority. William was glad of being thus peaceably put in possession of a throne which several of his predecessors had not gained without repeated victories.

But in order to give his invasion all the sanction possible, he was crowned at Westminster by the archbishop of York, and took the oath usual in the times of the Saxon and Danish kings, which was, to protect and defend the church, to observe the laws of the realm, and to govern the people with impartiality. Having thus, by a mixture of rigour and lenity, brought the English to an entire submission, he resolved to return to the continent, there to enjoy the congratulation of his ancient subjects; but his absence in England produced the most fatal effects. His officers, being no longer controlled by his justice, thought this a fit opportunity for extortion; while the English, no longer awed by his presence, thought it the happiest occasion for vindicating their freedom.

The English had entered into a conspiracy to cut off their invaders, and fixed the day for their intended massacre, which was to be Ash-Wednesday, during the time of divine service, when all the Normans would be unarmed as penitents, according to the discipline of the times. But William's return quickly disconcerted all their schemes; and from that time he began to lose all confidence in his English subjects, and to regard them as inveterate and irreconcilable enemies. Having already raised a number of fortresses in the kingdom, to check the tumultuous efforts of a discontented multitude, he determined to treat them as a conquered nation, to indulge his own avarice, and that of his followers, by numerous confiscations, and to secure his power by humbling all who were able to make any resistance. He proceeded to confiscate all the estates of the English gentry, and to grant them liberally to his Norman followers. Thus all the ancient and honourable families were reduced to beggary, and the English found themselves entirely excluded from every honour or preferment; and, to keep the clergy as much as possible in his interests, he appointed none but his own countrymen to the most considerable church dignities, and even displaced Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, upon some frivolous pretences.

William having crushed several conspiracies, and by punishing the malcontents, thus secured the peace of his dominions, now expected rest from his labours: and finding none either willing or powerful enough to oppose him, he hoped that the end of his reign would be marked with prosperity and peace. But he found enemies where he least expected them, for his last troubles were excited by his own children, from the opposing of whom he could expect to reap neither glory nor gain. He had three sons, Robert, William, and Henry, besides several daughters. Robert, his eldest son, surnamed Curthose, from the shortness of his legs, inherited all the bravery of his family and nation, but was rather bold than prudent; and was often heard to express his jealousy of his two brothers, William and Henry. These, by greater assiduity, had wrought upon the credulity and affections of the king, and consequently were the most obnoxious to Robert, whose resentful mind soon found or made a cause for an open rupture. The princes were one day in sport together, and in the idle petulance of play, took it into their head to throw water upon their elder brother, as he passed through the court, on leaving their apartment. Robert, all alive to suspicion, quickly turned this frolic into a studied indignity, and having these jealousies still farther inflamed by one of his favourites, he drew his sword, and ran up stairs with intent to take revenge. The whole castle was quickly filled with tumult, and it was not without some difficulty, that the king himself was able to appease it. But he could not allay the animosity which, from that moment, prevailed in his family. Robert, attended by several of his confederates, withdrew to Rouen that very night, hoping to surprise the castle, but his design was defeated by the governor.

The flame being thus kindled, the popular character of the prince, and a sympathy of manners, engaged all the young nobility of Normandy and Maine, as well as of Anjou and Brittany, to espouse his quarrel; even his mother, it is said, aided him in his obstinate resistance by private encouragement. This unnatural contest continued for several years to inflame the Norman state; and William was at last obliged to have recourse to England for supporting his authority against his son. Accordingly, drawing an army of Englishmen together, he led them over to Normandy.

where he soon compelled Robert and his adherents to quit the field, and he was quickly reinstated in all his dominions.

William had scarcely put an end to this transaction, when he felt a very severe blow in the death of Matilda, his queen; and received information of a general insurrection in Maine, the nobility of which had been always averse to the Norman government. Upon his arrival on the continent, he found that the insurgents had been secretly assisted and excited by the king of France, whose policy consisted in lessening the Norman power. William's displeasure was not a little increased by the account he received of some railleries which that monarch had thrown out against him. It seems that William, who was become corpulent, had been detained in bed some time by sickness; and Philip was heard to say, that he only lay in of a big belly. This so provoked the English monarch, that he sent him word he should soon be up, and would at his churching, present him such a number of tapers, as would set the kingdom of France in a flame.

In order to perform this promise, he levied a strong army, and entering the Isle of France, destroyed and burned all the villages and houses without opposition, and took the town of Mante, which he reduced to ashes. But the progress of these hostilities was stopped by an accident which shortly after put an end to William's life. His horse chancing to place his fore-feet on some hot ashes, plunged so violently, that the rider was thrown forward, and bruised upon the pommel of the saddle to such a degree, that he suffered a relapse, of which he died shortly after at a little village near Rouen.

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## CHAPTER V.

WILLIAM RUFUS.—A. D. 107—1100.

WILLIAM, surnamed Rufus, from the colour of his hair, was appointed, by the king's will, his successor, while the elder son, Robert, was left in possession of Normandy. Nevertheless, the Norman barons were, from the beginning, displeased at the division of the empire by the late king; they eagerly desired an union as before, and looked upon Robert as the proper owner of the whole. A powerful conspiracy

was, therefore, carried on against William; and Ode, the late king's brother, undertook to conduct it to maturity.

William, sensible of the danger that threatened him, endeavoured to gain the affections of the native English, whom he prevailed upon, by promises of preference in the distribution of his favours, to espouse his interests. He was soon at the head of a numerous army, and showed himself ready to oppose all who should dispute his pretensions. In the mean time, Robert, instead of employing his money in levies to support his friends in England, squandered it away in idle expenses, and unmerited benefits, so that he procrastinated his departure till the opportunity was lost; while William exerted himself, with incredible activity, to dissipate the confederacy before his brother could arrive. Nor was this difficult to effect; the appearance of the king soon reduced the conspirators to implore his mercy. He granted them their lives, but confiscated all their estates, and banished them the kingdom.

A new breach was made some time after between the brothers, in which Rufus found means to encroach still farther, upon Robert's possessions. Every conspiracy thus detected served to enrich the king, who took care to apply to his own use those treasures which had been amassed for the purpose of dethroning him.

But the memory of these transient broils and unsuccessful treasons was now totally eclipsed by one of the most noted enterprises that ever adorned the annals of nations, or excited the attention of mankind; I mean the Crusades, which were now first projected. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, in Picardy, a man of great zeal, courage, and piety, had made a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem, and beheld with indignation, the cruel manner in which the Christians were treated by the infidels who were in possession of that place. He preached the crusade over Europe by the pope's permission, and men of all ranks flew to arms with the utmost alacrity, to rescue the Holy Land from the Infidels, and each bore the sign of the cross upon his right shoulder, as a mark of his devotion to the cause. In the midst of this universal ardour that was diffused over Europe, men were not entirely forgetful of their temporal interests; for some hoping for a more magnificent settlement in the soft regions of Asia, sold their European property for what-

ever they could obtain, contented with receiving any thing for what they were predetermined to relinquish. Among the princes who felt and acknowledged this general spirit of enterprise, was Robert, Duke of Normandy. The Crusade was entirely adapted to his inclinations and his circumstances; he was brave, zealous, covetous of glory, poor, harassed by insurrections, and, what was more than all, naturally fond of change. In order, therefore, to supply money, to defray the necessary charges of so expensive an undertaking, he offered to mortgage his dukedom in Normandy to his brother Rufus for a stipulated sum of money. This sum, which was no greater than ten thousand marks, was readily promised by Rufus, whose ambition was upon the watch to seize every advantage.

But though the cession of Maine and Normandy greatly increased the king's territories, they added but little to his real power, as his new subjects were composed of men of independent spirits, more ready to dispute than to obey his commands. Many were the revolts and insurrections which he was obliged to quell in person; and no sooner was one conspiracy suppressed, than another arose to give him fresh disquietude.

However, Rufus proceeded, careless of approbation or censure; and only intent upon extending his dominions either by purchase or conquest. The Earl of Poitiers and Guienne, inflamed with a desire of going upon the Crusade, had gathered an immense multitude for that expedition, but wanted money. He had recourse, therefore, to Rufus, and offered to mortgage all his dominions, which the king accepted with his usual avidity; and had prepared a fleet and an army, in order to take possession of the rich provinces thus consigned to his trust. But an accident put an end to all his ambitious projects; he was shot by an arrow that Sir Walter Tyrrell discharged at a deer in the New Forest, which glancing from a tree, struck the king to the heart. He dropped dead instantaneously; while the innocent author of his death, terrified at the accident, hastened to the seashore, embarked for France, and joined the Crusade.

## CHAPTER VI.

HENRY I. SURNAMED BEAUCLERK.—A. D. 1100—1135.

HENRY, the late king's younger brother, who had been hunting in the New Forest, when Rufus was slain, took the earliest advantage of the occasion, and hastening to Winchester resolved to secure the royal treasure, which he knew to be the best assistant in seconding his aims. The barons, as well as the people, acquiesced in a claim which they were unprovided to resist. To ingratiate himself with the people, he expelled from court all the ministers of his brother's debauchery and arbitrary power. One thing only remained to confirm his claims without danger of a rival. The English remembered their Saxon monarchs with gratitude, and beheld them excluded the throne with regret. There still remained some of the descendants of that favourite line; and, among others, Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling, who having declined all pretensions to royalty, was bred up in a convent, and had actually taken the veil. Upon her Henry first fixed his eyes as a proper consort, by whose means the long breach between the Saxon and Norman interests would be finally united. It only remained to get over the scruple of her being a nun: but this a council, devoted to his interests, readily admitted; and the nuptials were celebrated with great pomp.

It was at this unfavourable juncture that Robert returned from abroad, and after taking possession of his native dominions, laid his claim to the crown of England. But proposals for an accommodation being made, it was stipulated, that Robert, upon the payment of a certain sum, should resign his pretensions to England; and that, if either of the princes died without issue, the other should succeed to his dominions. This treaty being ratified, the armies on each side were disbanded; and Robert, having lived two months in harmony with his brother, returned to his own dominions.

But Robert's indiscretion soon rendered him unfit to govern any state; he was totally averse to business, and only studious of the more splendid amusements or employments of life. His servants pillaged him without compunction; and he is described as lying whole days in bed for want of clothes, of which they had robbed him. His subjects were

treated still more deplorably; for being under the command of petty and rapacious tyrants, who plundered them without mercy, the whole country was become a scene of violence and depredation. It was in this miserable exigence, that the Normans at length had recourse to Henry, from whose wise administration of his own dominions, they expected a similitude of prosperity, should he take the reins of theirs. Henry very readily promised to redress their grievances, as he knew it would be the direct method to second his own ambition. The year ensuing, therefore, he landed in Normandy with a strong army; took some of the principal towns; and a battle ensuing, Robert's forces were totally overthrown, and he himself taken prisoner, with near ten thousand of his men, and all the considerable barons who had adhered to his misfortunes. This victory was followed by the final reduction of Normandy, while Henry returned in triumph to England, leading with him his captive brother, whom he detained a prisoner during the remainder of his life, which was no less than twenty-eight years; and he died at the castle of Cardiff, in Glamorganshire. It is even said by some, that he was deprived of his sight by a red-hot copper basin applied to his eyes; while his brother attempted to stifle the reproaches of his conscience, by founding the abbey of Reading, which was then considered as a sufficient atonement for every degree of barbarity.

Fortune now seemed to smile upon Henry, and promise a long succession of felicity. He was in peaceable possession of two powerful states, and had a son who was acknowledged the undisputed heir, arrived at his eighteenth year, whom he loved most tenderly. His daughter, Matilda, was also married to the emperor, Henry V. of Germany. All his prospects, however, were at once clouded by unforeseen misfortunes and accidents. The king, from the facility with which he usurped the crown, dreading that his family might be subverted with the same ease, took care to have his son recognised as his successor by the states of England, and carried him over to Normandy to receive the homage of the barons of that duchy. After performing this requisite ceremony, Henry returning triumphantly to England, brought with him a numerous retinue of the chief nobility, who seemed to share in his successes. In one of the vessels of the fleet, his son, and several young noblemen, the companions

of his pleasures, went together, to render the passage more agreeable. The king set sail from Barfleur, and was soon carried by a fair wind out of sight of land. The prince was detained by some accident; and his sailors, as well as their captain, Fitz-Stephen, having spent the interval in drinking, became so disorderly, that they ran the ship upon a rock, and immediately it was dashed to pieces. The prince was put into the boat, and might have escaped, had he not been called back by the cries of Maude, his natural sister. He was first conveyed out of danger himself, but could not leave a person so dear to perish, without an effort to save her. He therefore, prevailed upon his sailors to row back and take her in. The approach of the boat giving several others, who had been left upon the wreck, the hopes of saving their lives, numbers leaped in, and the whole went to the bottom. Above a hundred and forty young noblemen, of the principal families of England and Normandy, were lost on this occasion. A butcher of Rouen was the only person on board who escaped; he clung to the mast, and was taken up the next morning by some fishermen. Fitz-Stephen, the captain, while the butcher was thus buffeting the waves for his life, swam up to him, and inquired if the prince was yet living; when being told that he had perished, Then I will not outlive him, said the captain, and immediately sunk to the bottom. The shrieks of these unfortunate people were heard on the shore; and the noise even reached the king's ship, but the cause was then unknown. Henry entertained hopes for three days, that his son had put into some distant port in England; but when certain intelligence of the calamity was brought him, he fainted away, and was never seen to smile from that moment to the day of his death, which followed some time after at St. Dennis, a little town in Normandy, from eating too plentifully of lampreys, a dish he was particularly fond of. He died in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign, leaving by will his daughter Matilda heiress of all his dominions.

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## CHAPTER VII.

STEPHEN.—A. D. 1132—1154.

No sooner was the king known to be dead, than Stephen, son of Adela, the king's sister, and the count of Blois, conscious



of his own power and influence, resolved to secure to himself the possession of what he so long desired. He therefore hastened from Normandy, and arriving at London, was immediately saluted king by all the lower ranks of people. His next step was to gain over the clergy; and for that purpose, his brother, the bishop of Winchester, exerted all his influence among them with good success.

The first acts of an usurper are always popular. Stephen in order to secure his tottering throne, passed a charter, granting several privileges to the different orders of the state. To the nobility, a permission to hunt in their own forests; to the clergy, a speedy filling of all vacant benefices; and to the people, restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. To fix himself still more securely, he took possession of the royal treasures at Winchester, and had his title ratified by the pope with a part of the money.

Matilda, however, asserting her claim to the crown, landed upon the coast of Sussex, assisted by Robert, earl of Gloucester, natural son of the late king. The whole of Matilda's retinue, upon this occasion, amounted to no more than an hundred and forty knights, who immediately took possession of Arundel castle; but she soon increased the number of her partisans, and her forces every day seemed to gain ground. Meantime Stephen, being assured of her arrival, flew to besiege Arundel, where she had taken refuge, and where she was protected by the queen dowager, who secretly favoured her pretensions. This fortress was too feeble to promise a long defence, and would have been soon taken, had it not been represented to the king, that as it was a castle belonging to the queen dowager, it would be an infringement on the respect due to her to attempt taking it by force. There was a spirit of generosity mixed with the rudeness of the times, that unaccountably prevailed in many transactions; Stephen permitted Matilda to come forth in safety, and had her conveyed with security to Bristol, another fortress equally strong with that from whence he permitted her to retire. It would be tedious to relate the various skirmishes on either side, in pursuance of their respective pretensions; it will suffice to say, that Matilda's forces increased every day; and a victory gained by the queen threw Stephen from the throne, and exalted Matilda in his room, who was crowned at Winchester with all imaginable solemnity.

Matilda, however, affected to treat the nobility with a degree of disdain, to which they had been long unaccustomed; so that the fickle nation once more began to pity their deposed king. The bishop of Winchester fomented these discontents; and when he found the people ripe for a tumult, detached a party of his friends and vassals to block up the city of London, where the queen then resided, and measures were taken to instigate the Londoners to a revolt, and to seize her person. Matilda having timely notice of this conspiracy, fled to Winchester, whither the bishop, still her secret enemy, followed her. His party was soon sufficient to bid the queen open defiance; and to besiege her in the very place where she first received his benediction. There she continued for some time, but the town being pressed by famine, she was obliged to escape, while her brother the earl of Gloucester, endeavouring to follow, was taken prisoner, and exchanged for Stephen, who still continued a captive. Thus a sudden revolution once more took place; Matilda was deposed, and obliged to seek for safety in Oxford, while Stephen was again recognised as king.

But he was now to enter the lists with a new opposer, Henry, the son of Matilda, who had now reached his sixteenth year, and gave the greatest hopes of being one day a valiant leader and a consummate politician. With the wishes of the people in his favour, he resolved to reclaim his hereditary kingdom, and to dispute once more Stephen's usurped pretensions; and accordingly made an invasion on England, where he was immediately joined by almost all the barons of the kingdom. Stephen tried every method to anticipate the purpose of his invasion; but finding it impossible, he was obliged to have recourse to treaty. It was therefore agreed that Stephen should reign during his life; and that justice should be administered in his name: that Henry should, on Stephen's death, succeed to the kingdom: and William, Stephen's son, should inherit Bologne, and his patrimonial estate. After all the barons had sworn to this treaty, which filled the whole kingdom with joy, Henry evacuated England, and Stephen returned to the peaceable enjoyment of his throne. His reign, however, was soon after terminated by his death, which happened about a year after the treaty, at Canterbury, where he was interred.

## CHAPTER VIII.

HENRY II.—A. D. 1154—1189.

THE first act of Henry's government gave the people a happy omen of his future wise administration. Conscious of his power, he began to correct those abuses, and to resume those privileges which had been extorted from the weakness or the credulity of his predecessors. He immediately dismissed all those mercenary soldiers who committed infinite disorders in the nation. He resumed many of those benefactions which had been made to churches and monasteries in the former reigns. He gave charters to several towns, by which the citizens claimed their freedom and privileges, independent of any superior but himself. These charters were the ground-work of English liberty. The struggles which had before this time been, whether the king, or the barons, or the clergy, should be despotic over the people, now began to assume a new aspect; and a fourth order, namely, that of the more opulent of the people, began to claim a share in administration. Thus was the feudal government at first impaired; and liberty began to be more equally diffused throughout the nation.

Henry being thus become the most powerful prince of his age, the undisputed monarch of England, possessed of more than a third of France, might naturally be expected to reign with very little opposition for the future. But it happened otherwise.

The famous Thomas à Becket, the first man of English extraction who had, since the Norman conquest, risen to any share of power, was the son of a citizen of London. Having received his early education in the schools of that metropolis, he resided some time at Paris; and on his return, became clerk in the sheriff's office. From that humble station, he rose through the gradations of office, until at last he was made archbishop of Canterbury. No sooner was he fixed in this high station, which rendered him for life the second person in the kingdom, than he endeavoured to retrieve the character of sanctity, which his former levities might appear to oppose. He was in his person the most mortified man that could be seen. He wore sackcloth next his skin; he changed it so seldom that it was filled with dirt and vermin. His usual diet was bread, his drink water;

which he rendered farther unpalatable by the mixture of unsavoury herbs. His back was mangled by frequent discipline. He every day washed on his knees the feet of thirteen beggars. Thus pretending to sanctity, he set up for being a defender of the privileges of the clergy, which had for a long time become enormous, and which it was Henry's aim to abridge.

An opportunity soon offered that gave him a popular pretext for beginning his intended reformation. A man in holy orders had debauched the daughter of a gentleman in Worcestershire, and then murdered the father to prevent the effects of his resentment. The atrociousness of the crime produced a spirit of indignation among the people, and the king insisted that the assassin should be tried by the civil magistrate. This Becket opposed, alleging the privileges of the church.

In order to determine this matter, the king summoned a general council of the nobility and prelates at Clarendon, to whom he submitted this great and important affair, and desired their concurrence. These councils seem at that time convened rather to give authenticity to the king's decrees, than to enact laws that were to bind their posterity. A number of regulations were there drawn up, which were afterwards well known under the title of the Constitutions of Clarendon, and were then voted without opposition. By these regulations it was enacted, that clergymen accused of any crime should be tried in the civil courts, that laymen should not be tried in the spiritual courts, except by legal, reputable witnesses. These, with some others of less consequence, or implied in the above, to the number of sixteen, were readily subscribed to by all the bishops present; Becket himself, who at first shewed some reluctance, added his name to the number: but Alexander, who was then pope, condemned them in the strongest terms, and annulled them.

This produced a contest between the king and Becket, who took part with his Holiness, and, with an intrepidity peculiar to himself, arraying himself in his episcopal vestments, and with a cross in his hand, went forward to the king's palace, and entering the royal apartments, sat down, holding up the cross as his banner of protection. There he put himself, in the most solemn manner, under the protection of the supreme pontiff; and upon receiving a refusal

to leave the kingdom, he secretly withdrew in disguise, and found means to pass over to the continent, where his intrepidity, joined to his apparent sanctity, gained him a very favourable reception.

The pope and he were not remiss to retort their fulminations, and to shake the very foundation of the king's authority; Becket compared himself to Christ, who had been condemned by a lay tribunal, and who was crucified anew in the present oppressions under which the church laboured. He issued out a censure, excommunicating the king's chief ministers by name, all that were concerned in sequestering the revenues of his see, and all who obeyed or favoured the Constitutions of Clarendon. Frequent attempts, indeed, were made towards an accommodation; but the mutual jealousies that each bore to the other, and their anxiety not to lose the least advantage in the negotiation, often protracted this desirable treaty.

At length, however, the mutual aim of both made a reconciliation necessary, but nothing could exceed the insolence with which Becket conducted himself upon his first landing in England. Instead of retiring quietly to his diocese, with that modesty which became a man just pardoned by his king, he made a progress through Kent in all the splendour and magnificence of a sovereign pontiff. As he approached Southwark, the clergy, the laity, men of all ranks and ages came forth to meet him, and celebrated his triumphal entry with hymns of joy. Thus confident of the voice and the hearts of the people, he began to launch forth his thunders against those who had been his former opposers. The archbishop of York, who had crowned Henry's eldest son in his absence, was the first against whom he denounced sentence of suspension. The bishops of London and Salisbury he actually excommunicated. One man he excommunicated for having spoken against him; and another, for having cut off the tail of one of his horses.

Henry was then in Normandy, while the primate was thus triumphantly parading through the kingdom; and it was not without the utmost indignation that he received information of his turbulent insolence. When the suspended and excommunicated prelates arrived with their complaints, his anger knew no bounds. He broke forth in the most acrimonious expressions against that arrogant churchman,

whom he had raised from the lowest station, to be the plague of his life, and the continued disturber of his government. The archbishop of York remarked to him, that so long as Becket lived, he could never expect to enjoy peace and tranquillity; and the king himself burst out into an exclamation, that he had no friends about him, or he would not so long have been exposed to the insults of that ungrateful hypocrite. These words induced four of his most resolute attendants to gratify their monarch's secret inclinations, and, being joined by some assistants at the place of their meeting, proceeded to Canterbury with all haste. Advancing directly to Becket's house, and entering his apartments, they reproached him very fiercely for the rashness and insolence of his conduct. During their altercation, the time approached for Becket to assist at vespers, whither he went unguarded, the conspirators following, and preparing for their attempt. As soon as he had reached the altar, where it is just to think he aspired at the glory of martyrdom, they all fell upon him; and having cloven his head with repeated blows, he dropt down dead before the altar of St. Benedict, which was besmeared with his blood and brains.

Nothing could exceed the king's consternation upon receiving the first news of this prelate's catastrophe. He was instantly sensible that the murder would be ultimately imputed to him; and, in order to divert the minds of the people to a different object, he undertook an expedition against Ireland. The Irish were at that time in pretty much the same situation as the English had been after the first invasion of the Saxons. They had been early converted to christianity; and, for three or four centuries after, possessed a very large proportion of the learning of the times. Being undisturbed by foreign invasions, and perhaps too poor to invite the rapacity of conquerors, they enjoyed a peaceful life, which they gave up to piety, and such learning as was then thought necessary to promote it. Of their learning, their arts, their piety, and even their polished manners, too many monuments remain to this day for us to make the least doubt concerning them; but it is equally true, that in time they fell from these advantages, and their degenerate posterity, at the period we are now speaking of, were wrapt in the darkest barbarity.

## HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

At the time when Henry first planned the invasion of the island, it was divided into five principalities, namely, Leinster, Meath, Munster, Ulster, and Connaught, each governed by its respective monarch. As it had been usual for one or other of those to take the lead in their wars, he was denominated sole monarch of the kingdom, and possessed of a power resembling that of the early Saxon monarchs in England. Roderic O'Connor, king of Connaught, was then advanced to this dignity, and Dermot McMorrogh was king of Leinster. This last-named prince, a weak, licentious tyrant, had carried off and ravished the daughter of the king of Meath, who, being strengthened by the alliance of the king of Connaught, invaded the ravisher's dominions, and expelled him from his kingdom. This prince, thus justly punished, had recourse to Henry, who was at that time in Guienne; and offered to hold his kingdom of the English crown, in case he recovered it by the king's assistance. Henry readily accepted the offer; but being at that time embarrassed by more near interests, he only gave Dermot letters patent, by which he empowered all his subjects to aid the Irish prince in the recovery of his dominions. Dermot, relying on this authority, returned to Bristol, where, after some difficulty, he formed a treaty with Richard, surnamed Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, who agreed to reinstate him in his dominions, upon condition of his being married to his daughter Eva, and declared heir of all his territory. Being thus assured of assistance, he returned privately to Ireland, and concealed himself during the winter in the monastery of Ferns, which he had founded. Robert Fitz-Stephens was the first knight who was able, the ensuing spring, to fulfil his engagements, by landing with an hundred and thirty knights, sixty esquires, and three hundred archers. They were soon after joined by Maurice Pendergast, who about the same time brought over ten knights and sixty archers; and with this small body of forces they resolved on besieging Wexford, which was to be theirs by treaty. This town was quickly reduced; and the adventurers being reinforced by another body of men to the amount of an hundred and fifty under the command of Maurioz Fitzgerald, composed an army that struck the barbarous inhabitants with awe. Roderic, the chief monarch of the island, ventured to oppose them, but he was de-

feated; and soon after the prince of Ossory was obliged to submit and give hostages for his future conduct.

Dermot being thus reinstated in his hereditary dominions, soon began to conceive hopes of extending the limits of his power, and making himself master of Ireland. With these views he endeavoured to expedite Strongbow: who, being personally prohibited by the king, was not yet come over. Dermot tried to inflame his ambition by the glory of the conquest, and his avarice by the advantages it would procure. He expatiated on the cowardice of the natives, and the certainty of his success. Strongbow first sent over Raymond, one of his retinue, with ten knights and seventy archers; and receiving permission shortly after for himself, he landed with two hundred horse, and a hundred archers. All these English forces now joined together, he became irresistible; and though the whole number did not amount to a thousand, yet such was the barbarous state of the natives, that they were everywhere put to the rout. The city of Waterford quickly surrendered; Dublin was taken by assault; and Strongbow soon after marrying Eva, according to treaty, became master of the kingdom of Leinster upon Dermot's decease.

The island being thus in a manner wholly subdued, for nothing was capable of opposing the further progress of the English arms, Henry became willing to share in person those honours which the adventurers had already secured. He therefore, shortly after, landed in Ireland, at the head of five hundred knights and some soldiers, not so much to conquer a disputed territory, as to take possession of a subjected kingdom. Thus, after a trifling effort, in which very little money was expended, and little blood shed, that beautiful island became an appendage to the English crown, and as such it has ever since continued.

The joy which this conquest diffused was very great; but troubles of a domestic nature served to render the remaining part of Henry's life a scene of turbulence and disquietude. Among the few vices ascribed to this monarch, unlimited gallantry was one. Queen Eleanor, whom he had married from motives of ambition, and who had been divorced from her former royal consort for her incontinence, was long become disagreeable to Henry, and he sought in others those satisfactions he could not find with her. Among



the number of his mistresses, Rosamond Clifford, better known by the name of Fair Rosamond, was the most remarkable. She is said to have been the most beautiful woman that was ever seen in England, and that Henry loved her with a long and faithful attachment.

In order to secure her from the resentment of his queen, who, from having been formerly incontinent herself, now became jealous of his incontinence, he concealed her in a labyrinth in Woodstock Park. But their intercourse was not so closely concealed but that it came to the queen's knowledge, who, guided by a clew of silk to her fair rival's retreat, obliged her, by holding a drawn dagger to her breast, to swallow poison. Whatever may be the veracity of this story, certain it is, that this haughty woman first sowed the seeds of dissension between the king and his children.

Young Henry, the king's eldest son, was taught to believe himself injured, when, upon being crowned as partner in the kingdom, he was not admitted into a share of the administration. His discontents were shared by his brothers Geoffry and Richard, whom the queen persuaded to assert their title to the territories assigned them. Queen Eleanor herself was meditating an escape to the court of France, whither her sons had retired, when she was seized by the king's order, and put into confinement. Thus Henry saw all his long perspective of future happiness totally clouded; his sons scarce yet arrived in manhood, eager to share the spoils of their father's possessions: his queen warmly encouraging those undutiful princes in their rebellion, and many potentates of Europe not ashamed to lend them assistance to support their pretensions.

Henry, therefore, knowing the influence of superstition over the minds of the people, and, perhaps, apprehensive that a part of his troubles arose from the displeasure of heaven, resolved to do penance at the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, for that was the name given to Becket upon his canonization. As soon as he came within sight of the church of Canterbury, alighting from his horse, he walked barefoot towards the town, and prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint. Next day he received absolution; and, departing for London, was acquainted with the agreeable news of a victory over the Scots, obtained on the very day of his absolution.

From that time his affairs began to wear a better aspect ; the barons, who had revolted, made instant submission, and England, in a few weeks, was restored to perfect tranquillity. Young Henry, who was ready to embark with a large army, finding disturbances quieted at home, abandoned all thoughts of the expedition, and died soon after, in the twenty-sixth year of his age, of a fever, at Martel, not without the deepest remorse for his undutiful conduct towards his father. Richard was now heir in his room, and soon discovered the same ardent ambition that had misled his elder brother.

A crusade having been once more projected, Richard, who could not bear to have even his father a partner in his victories, entered into a confederacy with the king of France, who promised to confirm him in those wishes at which he so ardently aspired. By this, Henry found himself obliged to give up all hopes of taking the cross, and compelled to enter upon a war with France and his eldest son. At last, however, a treaty was concluded, in which he was obliged to submit to many mortifying concessions ; but still more so, when, upon demanding a list of the barons whom it was stipulated he should pardon, he found his son John, his favourite child, among the number. He had long borne an infirm state of body with calm resignation ; he had seen his children rebel without much emotion ; but when he saw that child, whose interest always lay next to his heart, among the number of those who were in rebellion against him, he could no longer contain his indignation. He broke out into expressions of the utmost despair ; cursed the day in which he had received his miserable being ; and bestowed on his ungrateful children a malediction which he never after could be prevailed upon to retract. The more his heart was disposed for friendship and affection, the more he resented this barbarous return ; and now, not having one corner in his heart where he could look for comfort, or fly for refuge from his conflicting passions, he lost all his former vivacity. A lingering fever, caused by a broken heart, soon after terminated his life and his miseries. He died at the castle of Chinon, near Saumur, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign ; in the course of which he displayed all the abilities of a politician, all the sagacity of a legislator, and all the magnanimity of a hero.

## CHAPTER IX.

**RICHARD I. SURNAMED CŒUR DE LION.—A.D. 1189-1199.**

**RICHARD**, upon his accession to the throne, was still inflamed with the desire of going upon the crusade, and having got together a sufficient supply for his undertaking; having even sold his superiority over the kingdom of Scotland, which had been acquired in the last reign, for a moderate sum, he set out for the Holy Land, whither he was impelled by repeated messages from the king of France, who was ready to embark in the same enterprise.

The first place of rendezvous for the two armies of England and France was the plain of Vezelay, on the borders of Burgundy, where, when Richard and Philip arrived, they found their armies amounting to an hundred thousand fighting men. Here the French prince and the English entered into the most solemn engagement of mutual support, but having determined to conduct their armies to the Holy Land by sea, they were obliged, by stress of weather, to take shelter in Messina, the capital of Sicily, where they were detained during the whole winter. Richard took up his quarters in the suburbs, and possessed himself of a small fort which commanded the harbour. Philip quartered his troops in the town, and lived upon good terms with the Sicilian king. Many were the mistrusts and the mutual reconciliations between these two monarchs, which were very probably inflamed by the Sicilian king's endeavours. At length, however, having settled all controversies, they set sail for the Holy Land, where the French arrived long before the English.

Upon the arrival of the English army in Palestine, however, the French and English princes seemed to forget their secret jealousies, and to act in concert; but shortly after, Philip, from the bad state of his health, returned to France, leaving Richard ten thousand of his troops under the command of the duke of Burgundy. Richard then went on from victory to victory. The christian adventurers under his command determined to besiege the renowned city of Ascalon, in order to prepare the way for attacking Jerusa-

lem with the greater advantage. Saladin, the most heroic of all the Saracen monarchs, was resolved to dispute their march, and placed himself upon the road with an army of three hundred thousand men. This was a day equal to Richard's wishes, this an enemy worthy his highest ambition. The English crusaders were victorious. Richard, when the wings of his army were defeated, led on the main body in person and restored the battle. The Saracens fled in the utmost confusion, and no less than forty thousand of their number perished on the field of battle. Ascalon soon surrendered after this victory; other cities of less note followed the example, and Richard was at last able to advance within sight of Jerusalem, but just at this glorious juncture, upon reviewing his forces, and considering his abilities to prosecute the siege, he found that his army was so wasted with famine, fatigue, and even victory, that they were neither able nor willing to second the views of their commander. It appeared, therefore, absolutely necessary to come to an accommodation with Saladin; and a truce for three years was accordingly concluded, in which it was agreed, that the sea-port towns of Palestine should remain in the hands of the christians, and that all of that religion should be permitted to make their pilgrimage to Jerusalem in perfect security.

Having thus concluded this expedition with more glory than advantage, Richard began to think of returning home; but being obliged to take the road through Germany, in the habit of a pilgrim, he was arrested by Leopold, duke of Austria, who commanded him to be imprisoned, and loaded with shackles. The emperor soon after required the prisoner to be delivered up to him, and stipulated a large sum of money to the duke as a reward for this service. Thus the king of England, who had long filled the world with his fame, was basely thrown into a dungeon, and loaded with irons, by those who expected to reap a sordid advantage from his misfortunes. It was a long time before his subjects in England knew what was become of their beloved monarch. So little intercourse was there between different nations of that time, that this discovery is said by some to have been made by a poor French minstrel, who, playing upon his harp near the fortress in which Richard was confined, sang which he knew that unhappy

monarch was fond of, he was answered by the king from within, who with his harp played the same tune, and thus discovered the place of his confinement.

However the English, at length, prevailed upon this barbarous monarch, who now saw that he could no longer detain his prisoner, to listen to terms of accommodation. A ransom was agreed upon, which amounted to an hundred and fifty thousand marks, or about three hundred thousand pounds of our money, upon the payment of which Richard was once more restored to his expecting subjects.

Nothing could exceed the joy of the English upon seeing their monarch return after all his achievements and sufferings. He made his entry into London in triumph, and such was the profusion of wealth shown by the citizens, that the German lords, who attended him, were heard to say, that if the emperor had known of their affluence he would not so easily have parted with their king. He soon after ordered himself to be crowned anew at Winchester. He convoked a general council at Nottingham, at which he confiscated all his brother John's possessions, who had basely endeavoured to prolong his captivity, and gone over to the king of France with that intent. However, he pardoned him soon after, with this generous remark, "I wish I could as easily forget my brother's offence as he will my pardon."

Richard's death was occasioned by a singular accident: a vassal of the crown had taken possession of a treasure, which was found by one of his peasants in digging a field in France, and, to secure the remainder, he sent a part of it to the king. Richard, as superior lord, sensible that he had a right to the whole, insisted on its being sent him; and, upon refusal, attacked the castle of Chalus, where he understood this treasure had been deposited. On the fourth day of the siege, as he was riding round the place to observe where the assault might be given with the fairest probability of success, he was aimed at by one Bertram de Gourdou, an archer, from the castle, and pierced in the shoulder with an arrow. The wound was not in itself dangerous; but an unskilful surgeon, endeavouring to disengage the arrow from the flesh, so rankled the wound that it mortified, and brought on fatal symptoms. Richard, when he found his end approaching, made a will, in which he bequeathed the kingdom, with all his treasure, to his brother

John, except a fourth part, which he distributed among his servants. He ordered also, that the archer who had shot him should be brought into his presence, and demanded what injury he had done him that he should take away his life? The prisoner answered with deliberate intrepidity: "You killed, with your own hands, my father, and my two brothers, and you intended to have hanged me. I am now in your power, and my torments may give you revenge; but I will endure them with pleasure, since it is my consolation that I have rid the world of a tyrant." Richard, struck with this answer, ordered the soldier to be presented with one hundred shillings, and set at liberty, but Marcadée, the general who commanded under him, like a true ruffian, ordered him to be flayed alive, and then hanged. Richard died in the tenth year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age, leaving only one natural son, called Philip, behind him.

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## CHAPTER X.

JOHN.—A.D. 1199—1216.

JOHN was no sooner seated on the throne than he hastened to secure the provinces on the continent, which had revolted to young Arthur, his nephew, and rightful heir to the crown. His pride and cruelty were alike the detestation of his subjects; and the murder of prince Arthur in prison, by his own hands, served to render him completely odious in their eyes. They dreaded his character, but could not condemn his power. But it was the fate of this vicious prince to make those the enemies of himself whom he wanted abilities to make the enemies of each other. The clergy had for some time acted as a community independent of the crown, and had their elections of each other generally confirmed by the pope, to whom alone they acknowledged obedience. However, the elections of archbishops had for some time been a continual subject of dispute between the suffragan bishops and the Augustine monks, and both had precedents to confirm their pretensions. John sided with the bishops, and sent two knights of his train to expel the monks from their convent, and to take possession of their revenues. The pope was not displeased at these divisions, and instead of electing either of the persons ap-

pointed by the contending parties, he nominated Stephen Langton as archbishop of Canterbury. John, however, refusing to admit the man of the pope's choosing, the kingdom was put under an interdict. This instrument of terror in the hands of the see of Rome, was calculated to strike the senses in the highest degree, and to operate upon the superstitious minds of the people. By it a stop was immediately put to divine service, and to the administration of all the sacraments but baptism. The church-doors were shut; the statues of the saints were laid on the ground; the dead were refused christian burial, and were thrown into ditches and on the highways, without the usual rites or any funeral solemnity.

No situation could be more deplorable than that of John. Furious at his indignities, jealous of his subjects, and apprehending an enemy in every face, it is said, that he shut himself up a whole night in the castle of Nottingham, and suffered none to approach his person; but what was his consternation, when he found that the pope had actually given away his kingdom to the monarch of France, and that the prince of that country was preparing an army to take possession of his crown. He was, however, still able to make an expiring effort to receive the enemy. All hated as he was, the natural enmity between the French and the English, the name of king, which he still retained, and some remaining power, put him at the head of sixty thousand men, a sufficient number, indeed, but not to be relied on, and with these he advanced to Dover. Europe now regarded the important preparations on both sides with impatience, and the decisive blow was soon expected, in which the church was to triumph, or to be overthrown. But neither Philip nor John had ability equal to the pontiff by whom they were actuated; he appeared, on this occasion, too refined a politician for either. He only intended to make use of Philip's power to intimidate his refractory son, not to destroy him. He intimated, therefore, to John, by his legate, that there was but one way to secure himself from impending danger: which was, to put himself under the pope's protection, and accordingly he took an oath to perform whatever stipulations the pope should impose. Having thus sworn to the performance of an unknown command, the artful Italian so well managed the barons, and

so effectually intimidated the king, that he persuaded him to take the most extraordinary oath in all the records of history, before all the people, upon his knees, and with his hands held up between those of the legate.

"I John, by the grace of God king of England, and lord of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, from my own free will, and the advice of my barons, give to the church of Rome, to pope Innocent, and his successors, the kingdom of England, and all other prerogatives of my crown. I will hereafter hold them as the pope's vassal. I will be faithful to God, to the church of Rome, to the pope my master, and his successors legitimately elected. I promise to pay him a tribute of a thousand marks yearly; to wit, seven hundred for the kingdom of England, and three hundred for the kingdom of Ireland." Having thus done homage to the legate, and agreed to reinstate Langton in the primacy, he received the crown, which he had been supposed to have forfeited, while the legate trampled under his feet the tribute which John had consented to pay. Thus, by this most scandalous concession, John once more averted the threatened blow; but, by repeated acts of cruelty, and by expeditions without effect, he was become the detestation of all mankind.

The barons had been long forming a confederacy against him, but their aims were disappointed by various accidents. At length, however, they assembled a large body of men at Stamford, and from thence, elated with their power, they marched to Brackley, about fifteen miles from Oxford, the place where the court then resided. John, hearing of their approach, sent the archbishop of Canterbury, the earl of Pembroke, and others of his council, to know what those liberties were which they so earnestly importuned him to grant. The barons delivered a schedule, containing the chief articles of their demands, and of which the former charters of Henry and Edward formed the groundwork. No sooner were these shown to the king than he burst into a furious passion, and asked why the barons did not also demand his kingdom? swearing that he would never comply with such exorbitant demands; but the confederacy was now too strong to fear much from the consequences of his resentment. They chose Robert Fitzwalter for their gene-



ral, whom they dignified with the title of "Mareschal of God, and of the holy church;" and proceeding to make war upon the king, they besieged Northampton, took Bedford, and were joyfully received in London. They wrote circular letters to all the nobility and gentlemen who had not yet declared in their favour, and menaced their estates with devastation in case of refusal or delay.

John, struck with terror, first offered to refer all differences to the pope alone, or to eight barons, four to be chosen by himself, and four by the confederates. This the barons scornfully rejected. He then assured them that he would submit at discretion, and that it was his supreme pleasure to grant all their demands: a conference was accordingly appointed, and all things adjusted for this most important treaty. The ground where the king's commissioners met the barons was between Staines and Windsor, at a place called Runnymede, still held in reverence by posterity, as the spot where the standard of freedom was first erected in England. There the barons appeared with a vast number of knights and warriors, on the 15th day of June, 1215, while those on the king's part came a day or two after. Both sides encamped apart like open enemies. The barons, determined on carrying their aims, would admit of few abatements; and the king's agents being, for the most part, in their interests, few debates ensued. After some days, the king, with a facility that was somewhat suspicious, signed and sealed the charter required of him; a charter which continues in force to this day, and is that famous bulwark of English liberty, which goes by the name of **MAGNA CHARTA**. This famous deed either granted or secured freedom to those orders of the kingdom that were already possessed of freedom, namely, to the clergy, the barons, and the gentlemen; as for the inferior, and the greatest part of the people, they were as yet held as slaves, and it was long before they could come to a participation of legal protection. John, however, took the first opportunity of denying to be in the least governed by this charter. This produced a second civil war, in which the barons were obliged to have recourse to the king of France for assistance. Thus England saw nothing but a prospect of being every way undone. If John succeeded, a tyrannical and implacable monarch was

to be their tormentor: if the French king should prevail, the country was ever after to submit to a more powerful monarchy, and was to become a province of France. What neither human prudence could foresee, nor policy suggest, was brought about by a happy and unexpected event.

John had assembled a considerable army, with a view to make one great effort for the crown; and at the head of a large body of troops resolved to penetrate into the heart of the kingdom. With these resolutions he departed from Lynn, which, for its fidelity, he had distinguished with many marks of favour, and directed his route towards Lincolnshire. His road lay along the shore, which was overflowed at high water; but not being apprized of this, or being ignorant of the tide of the place, he lost all his carriages, treasure, and baggage, by its influx. He himself escaped with the greatest difficulty, and arrived at the abbey of Swinestead, where his grief for the loss he had sustained, and the distracted state of his affairs, threw him into a fever, which soon appeared to be fatal. Next day, being unable to ride on horseback, he was carried on a litter to the castle of Seeford, and from thence removed to Newark, where, after having made his will, he died in the fifty-first year of his age, and the eighteenth of his detested reign.

## CHAPTER XI.

HENRY III.—A. D. 1216—1272.

A CLAIM was, upon the death of John, made in favour of young Henry, the son of the late king, who was now but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of great worth and valour, who had faithfully adhered to John in all the fluctuations of his fortune, had him solemnly crowned by the bishops of Winchester and Bath, at Gloucester. The young king was of a character the very opposite to his father: as he grew up to man's estate, he was found to be gentle, merciful, and humane; he appeared easy and good-natured to his dependents; but no way formidable to his enemies. Without activity or vigour, he was unfit to conduct in war; without distrust or suspicion, he was imposed upon in times of peace.

As weak princes are never without governing favourites,

he first placed his affections on Hubert de Burgh, and he becoming obnoxious to the people, the place was soon supplied by Peter des Roches, bishop of Winchester, a Poictevin by birth, a man remarkable for arbitrary conduct, courage, and abilities. Henry, in pursuance of this prelate's advice, invited over a great number of Poictevins, and other foreigners, who were willing to adopt whatever schemes their employer should propose. Every office and command was bestowed on these unprincipled strangers, whose avarice and rapacity was exceeded only by their pride and insolence. So unjust a partiality excited the jealousy of the barons; and they assured the king, that if he did not dismiss all foreigners from court, they would drive both him and them out of the kingdom; but their anger was scarce kept within bounds when they saw a new swarm of these intruders come over from Gascony, with Isabella, the king's mother, who had been some time before married to the Count de la Marche. To these just causes of complaint were added the king's unsuccessful expeditions to the continent, his total want of economy, and his oppressive exactions, which were but the result of the former. At last Simon Montford, earl of Leicester, attempted an innovation in the government, to wrest the sceptre from the feeble hand who held it. This nobleman was son of the famous general who commanded against the Albigenses, who had revolted from the Romish religion, and had been destroyed some time before in the kingdom of Savoy. He was married to the king's sister; and, by his power and address, was possessed of a strong interest in the nation.

The first place where the formidable confederacy, which he formed discovered itself, was in the parliament-house, where the barons appeared in complete armour. The king, upon his entry asked them what was their intention? To which they submissively replied, to make him their sovereign, by confirming his power, and to have their grievances redressed. Henry, who was ready enough to promise whatever was demanded, instantly assured them of his intentions to give all possible satisfaction; and for that purpose summoned a parliament at Oxford, to digest a new plan of government, and to elect proper persons, who were to be intrusted with the chief authority. This parliament, afterwards called the **MAD PARLIAMENT**, went expeditiously to work upon the business

of reformation. Twenty-four barons were appointed, with supreme authority, to reform the abuses of the state, and Leicester was placed at their head. The whole state in their hands underwent a complete alteration; all Henry's officers were displaced, and creatures of the twenty-four barons were put in their room. They not only abridged the authority of the king, but the efficacy of parliament, giving up to twelve persons all parliamentary power between each session. *How much the state's affairs were improved.*

The first opposition that was made to these usurpations, was from a power which but lately began to take place in the constitution. The knights of the shire, who, for some time had begun to be regularly assembled in a separate house, represented, that their own interests and power seemed the only aim of all their decrees; and they even called upon the king's eldest son, prince Edward, to interpose his authority, and save the sinking nation.

Prince Edward was at this time about twenty-two years of age. The hopes which were conceived of his abilities and integrity, rendered him an important personage in the transactions of the times, and, in some measure, atoned for the father's imbecility. He had, at a very early age, given the strongest proofs of courage, of wisdom, and of constancy. At first, indeed, when applied to, he refused to listen to the people's earnest application; but being at last persuaded to concur, a parliament was called, in which the king resumed his former authority. From this a civil war ensued, in which, in a pitched battle, the earl of Leicester became victorious, and the king was taken prisoner, but soon after exchanged for prince Edward, who was to remain as a hostage to ensure the punctual observance of the former agreement.

With all these advantages, however, Leicester still feared the combinations of the foreign states against him, as well as the internal machinations of the royal party; and was obliged to have recourse to an aid till now entirely unknown in England, namely, that of the body of the people. He called a parliament, where, besides the barons of his own party, and several ecclesiastics, who were not immediate tenants of the crown, he ordered returns to be made of two knights from every shire; and also deputies from the boroughs which had hitherto been considered as too inconsiderable to

have a voice in legislation. This is the first confirmed outline of an English house of commons.

In this parliament, however, many of the barons, who had hitherto steadfastly adhered to his party, appeared disgusted at his immoderate ambition; and many of the people, who found that a change of masters was not a change for happiness, began to wish for the re-establishment of the royal family. Leicester finding himself unable to oppose the concurring wishes of the nation, resolved to make a merit of what he could not prevent; and he accordingly released prince Edward from confinement, and had him introduced to Westminster-hall, where his freedom was confirmed by the unanimous voice of the barons. But though Leicester had all the popularity of restoring the prince, yet he was politic enough to keep him still guarded by his emissaries, who watched all his motions, and frustrated all his aims.

Wherefore the prince, upon hearing that the duke of Gloucester was up in arms in his cause, took an opportunity to escape from his guards, and put himself at the head of his party. A battle soon after ensued; and the earl's army having been exhausted by famine on the mountains of Wales, was but ill able to sustain the impetuosity of young Edward's attack, who bore down upon it with incredible fury. During this terrible day, Leicester behaved with astonishing intrepidity, and kept up the spirit of the action, from two o'clock in the afternoon, till nine at night. At last, his horse being killed under him, he was compelled to fight on foot; and though he demanded quarter, the adverse party refused it, with a barbarity common enough in the times we are describing. The old king, who was placed in front of the battle, was soon wounded in the shoulder; and not being known by his friends, he was on the point of being killed by a soldier; but crying out, "I am Henry, of Winchester, the king," he was saved by a knight of the royal army. Prince Edward hearing the voice of his father, instantly ran to the spot where he lay, and had him conducted to a place of safety. The death of Leicester being found among the dead, was

by mangled by Roger Mortimer; and with an accumulation of inhumanity, sent to the widowed widow, as a testimony of the royal party's success. The victory proved decisive; and the prince having thus restored peace to the kingdom, found his affairs

established, that he resolved upon taking the cross, which was, at that time, the highest object of human ambition. In pursuance of this resolution, Edward sailed from England with a large army, and arrived at the camp of Lewis, the king of France, which lay before Tunis : and where he had the misfortune to hear of that good monarch's death before his arrival. The prince, however, continued his voyage, and arrived at the Holy Land in safety, but was scarce departed, when the health of the old king began to decline ; and he found not only his own constitution, but also that of the state, in such a dangerous situation, that he wrote letters to his son, pressing him to return with all despatch. At last, being overcome by the cares of government, and the infirmities of age, he ordered himself to be removed, by easy journeys, from St. Edmund's to Westminster, where, on the night of his arrival, he expired, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the fifty-sixth of his reign, the longest to be met with in the annals of England.

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## CHAPTER XII.

EDWARD I.—A. D. 1272—1307.

WHILE the unfortunate Henry was thus vainly struggling with the ungovernable spirit of his subjects, his son and successor, Edward, was employed in the Holy Wars, where he revived the glory of the English name, and made the enemies of Christianity tremble. He was stabbed, however, by one of those Mahometan enthusiasts, called Assassins, as he was one day sitting in his tent, and was cured not without great difficulty. Some say that he owed his safety to the piety of Eleonora, his wife, who sucked the poison from the wound to save his life, at the hazard of her own.

As Edward was now come to an undisputed throne, the opposite interests were proportionably feeling. The barons were exhausted by long mutual dissensions ; the clergy were divided in their interests, and agreed only in one point, to hate the pope, who had for some time drained them with impunity ; the people, by some insurrections against the convents, appeared to hate the clergy with equal animosity. But these disagreeing orders concurred in one point, that of esteeming and reverencing the king, who, therefore, thought

this the most favourable conjuncture of uniting England with Wales. The Welsh had, for many ages, enjoyed their own laws, language, customs, and opinions. They were the remains of the ancient Britons, who had escaped the Roman and Saxon invasions, and still preserved their freedom and their country, uncontaminated by the admission of foreign conquerors. But as they were, from their number, incapable of withstanding their more powerful neighbours on the plain, their chief defence lay in their inaccessible mountains, those natural bulwarks of the country. Whenever England was distressed by factions at home, or its forces called off to wars abroad, the Welsh made it a constant practice to pour in their irregular troops, and lay the open country waste wherever they came. Nothing could be more pernicious to a country than several neighbouring independent principalities, under different commanders, and pursuing different interests. Sensible of this, Edward had long wished to reduce that incursive people, and had ordered Lewellyn to do homage for his territories : which summons the Welsh prince refused to obey, unless the king's own son should be delivered as a hostage for his safe return. The king was not displeased at this refusal, as it served to give him a pretext for his intended invasion. He, therefore, levied an army against Lewellyn, and marched into his country with certain assurances of success.

Upon the approach of Edward, the Welsh prince took refuge amongst the inaccessible mountains of Snowdon, and there resolved to maintain his ground without trusting to the chance of a battle. These were the steep retreats that had, for many ages before, defended his ancestors against all the attempts of the Norman and Saxon conquerors. But Edward, equally vigorous and cautious, having explored every part of his way, pierced into the very centre of Lewellyn's territories, and approached the Welsh army in its last retreats. Hence, after extorting submission from the Welsh prince, the king retired. But an idle prophecy, in which it was foretold by Merlin, that Lewellyn was to be the restorer of Brutus's empire in Britain, persuaded this prince to hazard a decisive battle against the English. With this view he marched into Radnorshire ; and passing the river Wey, his troops were surprised and defeated by Edward Mortimer, while he himself was absent from his army, upon a confe-

rence with some of the barons of that country. Upon his return, he ran desperately into the midst of the enemy, and quickly found that death he so ardently sought for. David, the brother of this unfortunate prince, soon after fell in the same cause: and with him expired the government and the distinction of the Welsh nation. It was soon after united to the kingdom of England, made a principality, and given to the eldest son of the crown. Foreign conquests might add to glory, but this added to the felicity of the kingdom. The Welsh were now blended with the conquerors: and, in the revolution of a few ages, all national animosity was entirely forgotten.

Soon after, the death of Margaret, queen of Scotland, gave him hopes of adding also Scotland to his dominions. The death of this princess produced a most ardent dispute about the succession to the Scottish throne, being claimed by no less than twelve competitors. The claims, however, of all the other candidates were reduced to three, who were the descendants of the earl of Huntingdon, by three daughters: John Hastings, who claimed in right of his mother, as one of the co-heiresses of the crown; John Baliol, who alleged his right, as being descended from the eldest daughter, who was his grandmother; and Robert Bruce, who was the actual son of the second daughter. This dispute being referred to Edward's decision, with a strong degree of assurance he claimed the crown himself, and appointed Baliol his deputy. Baliol being thus placed upon the Scottish throne, less as a king than as a vassal, Edward's first step was sufficient to convince that people of his intentions to stretch the prerogative to the utmost. Upon the most frivolous pretences he sent six different summonses for Baliol to appear in London, at different times, in one year; so that the poor Scottish king soon perceived that he was possessed of the name only, but not the authority of a sovereign. Willing, therefore, to shake off the yoke of so troublesome a master, Baliol revolted, and procured the pope's absolution from his former oaths of homage.

But no power the Scotch could bring into the field was able to withstand the victorious army of Edward. He overthrew their forces in many engagements, and thus becoming undisputed master of the kingdom, he took every precaution to secure his title, and to abolish those distinctions which



might be apt to keep the nation in its former independence. Baliol was carried a prisoner to London, and he carefully destroyed all records and monuments of antiquity, that inspired the Scotch with a spirit of national pride.

These expeditions, however, terminated rather in glory than advantage: the expenses of the war were not only burdensome to the king, but even, in the event, threatened to shake him on his throne. At first he raised considerable supplies by means of his parliament: and that august body was then modelled by him into the form in which it continues to this day. As a great part of the property of the kingdom was, by the introduction of commerce, and the improvement of agriculture, transferred from the barons to the lower classes of the people, their consent was thought necessary for the raising any considerable supplies. For this reason, he issued writs to the sheriffs enjoining them to send to parliament, along with two knights of the shire, (as in the former reign,) two deputies from each borough within their county. One of the first efforts, therefore, was, to oblige the king's council to sign the Magna Charta, and to add a clause to secure the nation for ever against all impositions and taxes, without the consent of parliament. The king's council (for Edward was at that time in Flanders,) readily agreed to sign this; and the king himself, when it was sent over to him, after some hesitation, thought proper to do the same. These concessions he again confirmed upon his return; and was at last brought to give a plenary consent to all the articles that were demanded of him. Thus, after the contest of an age, the Magna Charta was fully established: nor was it the least circumstance in its favour, that its confirmation was procured from one of the greatest and boldest princes that ever swayed the English sceptre.

In the mean time, William Wallace, so celebrated in Scottish story, attempted to rescue Scotland from the English yoke. He was the youngest son of a gentleman, who lived in the western part of that kingdom. He was a man of gigantic stature, incredible strength, and amazing intrepidity; eagerly desirous of independence, and possessed of the most disinterested spirit of patriotism. To this man had resorted all those who were obnoxious to the English government; the proud, the bold, the criminal, and the ambitious, who, bred among dangers and hardships them-

selves, could not forbear admiring in their leader, a degree of patience, under fatigue and famine, which they supposed beyond the power of human nature to endure; he soon therefore became the principal object of their affection and their esteem. His first exploits were confined to petty ravages and occasional attacks upon the English; but he soon overthrew the English armies, and slew their generals.

Edward, who had been over in Flanders while these misfortunes happened in England, hastened back with impatience to restore his authority, and secure his former conquests. He quickly levied the whole force of his dominions; and at the head of an hundred thousand men, directed his march to the North, fully resolved to take vengeance upon the Scots for their late defection. A battle was fought at Falkirk, in which Edward gained a complete victory, leaving twelve thousand of the Scotch (or, as some will have it, fifty thousand) dead upon the field, while the English had not a hundred slain.

The Scotch, after a short interval, began to breathe from their calamities. Wallace, who had gained all their regards by his valour, showed that he still merited them more by his declining the rewards of ambition. Perceiving how much he was envied by the nobility, and knowing how prejudicial that envy would prove to the interests of his country, he resigned the regency of the kingdom, and humbled himself to a private station. He proposed Cummin as the properest person to supply his room; and that nobleman endeavoured to show himself worthy of this pre-eminence. He soon began to annoy the enemy; and, not content with a defensive war, made incursions into the southern counties of the kingdom, which Edward had imagined wholly subdued. They attacked an army of the English lying at Roslin near Edinburgh, and gained a complete victory.

But it was not easy for any circumstances of bad fortune to repress the enterprising spirit of the king. He assembled a great fleet and army; and, entering the frontiers of Scotland, appeared with a force which the enemy could not think of resisting in the open field. Assured of success, he marched along, and traversed the kingdom from one end to the other, ravaging the open country, taking all the castles, and receiving the submission of all the nobles. There seemed to remain only one obstacle to the final destruction

of the Scottish monarchy, and that was William Wallace, who still continued refractory; and wandering with a few forces from mountain to mountain, preserved his native independence and usual good fortune. But even their feeble hopes from him were soon disappointed; he was betrayed into the king's hands by Sir John Monteith, his friend, and the king, willing to strike the Scotch with the example of severity, ordered him to be conducted in chains to London, where he was hanged, drawn, and quartered, with the most brutal ferocity.

Robert Bruce, who had been one of the competitors for the crown, but was long kept a prisoner in London, at length escaping from his guards, resolved to strike for his country's freedom. Having murdered one of the king's servants, he left himself no resource, but to confirm by desperate valour what he had begun in cruelty; and he soon expelled such of the English forces as had fixed themselves in the kingdom. Soon after, he was solemnly crowned king by the bishop of St. Andrew's, in the abbey of Scone; and numbers flocked to his standard, resolving to confirm his pretensions. Thus, after twice conquering the kingdom; and as often pardoning the delinquents; the old king saw that nothing but the final destruction of the inhabitants could give him assurance of tranquillity. He vowed revenge against the whole nation; and averred that nothing but reducing them to the completest bondage could satisfy his resentment. He summoned his prelates, nobility, and all who held by knight's service, to meet him at Carlisle, which was appointed as the general rendezvous; and, in the mean time, he detached a body of forces before him into Scotland, under the command of Aymer de Valance, who began the threatened infliction by a complete victory over Bruce, near Methuen in Perthshire. Immediately after this dreadful blow, the resentful king appeared himself in person, entering Scotland with his army divided into two parts, and expecting to find, in the opposition of the people, a pretext for punishing them. But his anger was disappointed in their humiliations; and he was ashamed to extirpate those who only opposed patience to his indignation. His death put an end to the apprehensions of the Scotch, and effectually rescued their country from total subjection. He sickened, and died at Carlisle, of a dysentery: enjoining

his son, with his last breath, never to desist, till he had finally subdued the kingdom. He expired July 7, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; after having added more to the solid interests of the kingdom than any of those who went before, or succeeded him.

### CHAPTER XIII.

EDWARD II. SURNAMED CAERNARVON.—A. D. 1307—1327.

EDWARD was in the twenty-third year of his age when he succeeded his father, of an agreeable figure, of a mild, harmless disposition, and apparently addicted to few vices. But he soon gave symptoms of his unfitness to succeed so great a monarch as his father; he was rather fond of the enjoyment of his power, than of securing it: and lulled by the flattery of his courtiers, he thought he had done enough for glory, when he had accepted the crown. Instead, therefore, of prosecuting the war against Scotland, according to the injunctions he had received from his dying father, he took no steps to check the progress of Bruce; his march into that country being rather a procession of pageantry than a warlike expedition.

Weak monarchs are ever governed by favourites, and the first Edward placed his affections upon, was Piers Gaveston, the son of a Gascon knight, who had been employed in the service of the late king. This young man was beautiful, witty, brave, and active; but then he was vicious, effeminate, debauched, and trifling. These were qualities entirely adapted to the taste of the young monarch, and he seemed to think no rewards equal to his deserts. Gaveston, on the other hand, intoxicated with his power, became haughty and overbearing, and treated the English nobility with scorn and derision. A conspiracy, therefore, was soon formed against him, at the head of which queen Isabel, and the earl of Lancaster, a nobleman of great power, were associated.

It was easy to perceive, that a combination of the nobles, while the queen secretly assisted their designs, would be too powerful against the efforts of a weak king, and a vain favourite. The king, timid and wavering, banished him at their solicitation, and recalled him soon after. On this

A. D. 1312. all the Barons flew to arms ; with the earl of Lancaster at their head. The unhappy Edward sought only for safety ; and in the company of his favourite, embarked at Tinnmouth, and sailed to Scarborough, where he left Gaveston, as in a place of safety ; and then went back to York himself, either to raise an army to oppose his enemies, or, by his presence, to allay their animosity. In the mean time Gaveston was besieged in Scarborough by the earl of Pembroke ; and, sensible of the bad condition of the garrison, took the earliest opportunity to offer terms of capitulation. He stipulated, that he should remain in Pembroke's hands as a prisoner for two months ; and that endeavours should be used, in the mean time, for a general accommodation. But Pembroke had no intention that he should escape so easily ; he ordered him to be conducted to the castle of Deddington, near Banbury, where, on pretence of other business, he left him with a feeble guard, which the earl of Warwick having notice of, he attacked the castle in which the unfortunate Gaveston was confined, and quickly made himself master of his person. The earls of Lancaster, Hereford, and Arundel, were soon apprized of Warwick's success, and informed, that their common enemy was now in custody in Warwick castle, and hastened to hold a consultation upon the fate of their prisoner. This was of no long continuance ; they unanimously resolved to put him to death, as an enemy to the kingdom, and instantly had him conveyed to a place called Blacklow-hill, where he was beheaded.

To add to Edward's misfortunes, he soon after suffered a most signal defeat from the Scotch army under Bruce, near Bannockburn, and this drove him once more to seek relief in some favourite's company. The name of this new favourite was Hugh de Spenser, a young man of a noble English family, of some merit, and very engaging accomplishments. His father was a person of much more estimable character than the son ; he was venerable for his years, and respected through life for his wisdom, his valour, and his integrity. But these excellent qualities were all diminished and vilified from the moment he and his son began to share the king's favour, who even dispossessed some lords unjustly of their estates, in order to accumulate them upon his

favourite. This was a pretext the king's enemies had been long seeking for: the earls of Lancaster and Hereford flew to arms; sentence was procured from parliament of perpetual exile against the two Spensers, and a forfeiture of their fortune and estates. The king, however, at last rousing from his lethargy, took the field in the defence of his beloved Spenser, and at the head of thirty thousand men pressed the earl of Lancaster so closely, that he had not time to collect his forces together; and flying from one place to another, he was at last stopt in his way towards Scotland by Sir Andrew Harcla, and made prisoner. As he had formerly shown little mercy to Gaveston, there was little extended to him on this occasion. He was condemned by a court-martial; and led, mounted on a lean horse, to an eminence near Pomfret, in circumstances of the greatest indignity, where he was beheaded.

A rebellion, thus crushed, served only to increase the pride and rapacity of young Spenser: most of the forfeitures were seized for his use; and in his promptitude to punish the delinquents, he was found guilty of many acts of rapine and injustice. But he was now to oppose queen Isabella, a cruel, haughty woman, who fled over to France, and refused to appear in England, till Spenser was removed from the royal presence, and banished the kingdom. By this she became popular in England, where Spenser was universally disliked; and she had the pleasure of enjoying the company of a young nobleman whose name was Mortimer, upon whom she had lately placed her affections. The queen's court now, therefore, became a sanctuary for all malcontents; and, soon after, accompanied by three thousand men at arms, she set out from Dort harbour, and landed without opposition on the coast of Suffolk. She no sooner appeared than there seemed a general revolt in her favour; and the unfortunate king found the spirit of disloyalty was not confined to the capital alone, but diffused over the whole kingdom. He had placed some dependence upon the garrison which was stationed in the castle of Bristol, under the command of the elder Spenser; but they mutinied against their governor, and that unfortunate favourite was delivered up, and condemned by the tumultuous barons to the most ignominious death. He was hanged on a gibbet in his armour, his body was cut in pieces, and thrown to the dogs,

and his head was sent to Winchester, where it was set upon a pole, and exposed to the insults of the populace.

Young Spenser, the unhappy son, did not long survive the father; he was taken with some others who had followed the fortunes of the wretched king, in an obscure convent in Wales, and the merciless victors resolved to glut their revenge, in adding insult to cruelty. The queen had not patience to wait the formality of a trial; but ordered him immediately to be led forth before the insulting populace, and seemed to take a savage pleasure in feasting her eyes with his distresses. The gibbet erected for his execution was fifty feet high; his head was sent to London, where the citizens received it in brutal triumph and fixed it on the bridge. Several other lords also shared his fate; all deserving pity indeed, had they not themselves formerly justified the present inhumanity by setting a cruel example.

In the mean time the king, who hoped to find refuge in Wales, was quickly discovered, conducted to the capital amidst the insults and reproaches of the people, and confined in the Tower. A charge was soon after exhibited against him; in which his incapacity to govern, his indolence, his love of pleasure, and his being swayed by evil counsellors, were objected against him. His deposition was quickly voted by parliament; he was assigned a pension for his support, his son Edward, a youth of fourteen, was fixed upon to succeed him, and the queen was appointed regent during the minority.

The deposed monarch but a short time survived his misfortunes; he was sent from prison to prison 1327. a wretched outcast, and the sport of his inhuman keepers. He had been at first consigned to the custody of the earl of Lancaster; but this nobleman showing some marks of respect and pity, he was taken out of his hands, and delivered over to lords Berkeley, Montravers, and Gournay, who were intrusted with the charge of guarding him month about. Whatever his treatment from lord Berkeley might have been, the other two practised every kind of indignity upon him, as if their design had been to accelerate his death by the bitterness of his sufferings. Among other acts of brutal oppression, it is said that they shaved him for sport in the open fields, using water from a neighbouring ditch. He is said to have borne his former indigni-

ties with patience, but all fortitude forsook him upon this occasion ; he looked upon his merciless insulters with an air of disdain, and bursting into tears, exclaimed, that the time might come, when he would be more decently attended. This, however, was but a vain expectation. As his persecutors saw that his death might not arrive, even under every cruelty, till a revolution had been made in his favour, they resolved to rid themselves of their fears, by destroying him at once. Accordingly, his two keepers, Gournay and Montravers, came to Berkeley castle, where Edward was then confined ; and having concerted a method of putting him to death without any external violence, they threw him down on a bed, holding him down by a table, which they had placed over him. They then ran a horn pipe up his body, through which they conveyed a red-hot iron ; and thus burnt his bowels without disfiguring his body. By this cruel artifice, they expected to have their crime concealed ; but his horrid shrieks, which were heard at a distance from the castle, gave a suspicion of the murder ; and the whole was soon after divulged by the confession of one of the accomplices. Misfortunes like his must ever create pity ; and a punishment so disproportionate to the sufferer's guilt, must wipe away even many of those faults of which Edward was undoubtedly culpable.

## CHAPTER XIV.

EDWARD III.—A. D. 1327—1377.

THE parliament, by which young Edward was raised to the throne during the life of his father, appointed twelve persons as his privy council. Mortimer, the queen's paramour, artfully excluded himself, under a pretended show of moderation ; but at the same time he secretly influenced all their measures. He caused the greatest of the royal revenues to be settled on the queen-dowager, and he seldom took the trouble to consult the ministers of government in any public undertaking. The king himself was so besieged by the favourite's creatures, that no access could be procured to him, and the whole sovereign authority was shared between Mortimer and the queen.

At length, however, Edward was resolved to shake off



an authority that was odious to the nation, and particularly restrictive upon him. But such was the power of the favourite, that it required as much precaution to overturn the usurper, as to establish the throne. The queen and Mortimer had for some time chosen the castle of Nottingham for the place of their residence, which was strictly guarded. It was, therefore, agreed between the king and some of his barons, who secretly entered into his designs, to seize upon them in the fortress; and for that purpose, Sir William Eland, the governor, was induced to admit them by a secret subterraneous passage, which had been formerly contrived for an outlet, but was now hidden with rubbish, and known only to one or two. It was by this, therefore, the noblemen in the king's interest entered the castle in the night; and Mortimer was seized in an apartment adjoining that of the queen's. It was in vain that she endeavoured to protect him: in vain she intreated them to spare her "gentle Mortimer;" the barons, deaf to her entreaties, denied her that pity which she had so often refused to others. Her paramour was condemned by the parliament, which was then sitting, without being permitted to make his defence, or even examining a witness against him. He was hanged on a gibbet at a place called Elmes, about a mile from London, where his body was left hanging for two days after. The queen, who was certainly the most culpable, was shielded by the dignity of her situation; she was only discarded from all share of power, and confined for life to the castle of Rising, with a pension of three thousand pounds a year. From this confinement she was never after set free; and though the king annually paid her a visit of decent ceremony, yet she found herself abandoned to universal contempt and detestation; and continued for above twenty-five years after, a miserable monument of blighted ambition.

In order still more to secure the people's affections, Edward made a successful irruption into Scotland, in which, in one battle fought at Hallidown-hill, above thirty thousand of the Scotch were slain. Soon after he turned his arms against France, which was at that time particularly unfortunate. The three sons of Philip the Fair, in full parliament, accused their wives of adultery, and, in consequence of this accusation, they were condemned and imprisoned for life.—Lewis Hewton, successor to the crown of France,

caused his wife to be strangled, and her lovers to be flayed alive. After his death, as he left only a daughter, his next brother, Philip the Tall, assumed the crown, in her prejudice; and vindicated his title by the Salic law, which ordered that no female should succeed to the crown. Edward, however, urged his pretensions, as being by his mother Isabella, who was daughter to Philip the Fair, and sister to the three last kings of France, rightful heir to the crown. But he first, in a formal manner, consulted his parliament, obtained their approbation, received a proper supply of wool, which he intended to barter with the Flemings; and being attended with a body of English forces, and several of his nobility, he sailed over into Flanders, big with his intended conquests. The first great advantage he gained, was in a naval engagement on the coast of Flanders, in which the French lost two hundred and thirty ships, and had thirty thousand of their seamen, and two of their admirals slain.

The intelligence of Edward's landing, and the devastation caused by his troops, who dispersed themselves over the country, soon spread universal consternation through the French court. Caen was taken and plundered by the English, without mercy; the villages and towns, even up to Paris, shared the same fate; and the French, by breaking down their bridges, could only attempt to stop the invader's career. Philip, the king of France, then stationed one of his generals, Godemar de Faye, with an army on the opposite of the river Somme, over which Edward was to pass; while he himself, at the head of a hundred thousand fighting men, advanced to give the English battle.

As both armies had for some time been in sight of each other, nothing was so eagerly expected on each side as a battle; and although the forces were extremely disproportioned, the English amounting only to thirty thousand, the French to a hundred and twenty thousand, yet Edward resolved to indulge the impetuosity of his troops, and put all to the hazard of a battle. He accordingly chose his ground with advantage near the village of Crecy, and there determined to await with tranquillity the shock of the enemy. He drew up his men on a gentle ascent, and divided them into three lines. The first was commanded by the young prince of Wales; the second was conducted by the earls of North-

Northampton and Arundel; and the third, which was kept as a body of reserve, was headed by the king in person.

On the other side Philip, impelled by resentment, and confident of his numbers, was more solicitous in bringing the enemy to an engagement than prudent in taking measures for its success. He led on his army in three bodies opposite to those of the English. The first line consisted of fifteen thousand Genoese cross-bowmen; the second body was led by the king of France's brother; and he himself was at the head of the third.

About three in the afternoon, the famous battle of Crecy began, by the French king's ordering the Genoese archers to charge; but they were so fatigued with the march, that they cried out for a little rest before they should engage. The Count Alençon, being informed of their petition, rode up and reviled them as cowards, commanding them to begin the onset without delay. The reluctance to begin was still more increased by a heavy shower which fell that instant, and relaxed their bow-strings; so that the discharge they made produced but very little effect. On the other hand, the English archers, who had kept their bows in cases, and were favoured by a sudden gleam of sunshine, that rather dazzled the enemy, let fly their arrows so thick, and with such good aim, that nothing was to be seen among the Genoese but hurry, terror, and dismay. The young prince of Wales had presence of mind to take advantage of their confusion, and to lead on his line to the charge. The French cavalry, however, commanded by the Count Alençon, wheeling round, sustained the combat, and began to hem the English in. The earls of Arundel and Northampton now came to assist the prince, who appeared foremost in the very shock, and, wherever he appeared, turned the fortune of the day. The thickest of the battle was now gathered round him, and the valour of a boy filled even veterans with astonishment; but their surprise at his courage could not give way to their fears for his safety. Being apprehensive that some mischance might happen to him in the end, an officer was despatched to the king, desiring that succours might be sent to the prince's relief. Edward, who had all this time, with great tranquillity, viewed the engagement from a windmill, demanded, with seeming deliberation, if his son were

dead; but being answered that he still lived, and was giving astonishing instances of valour; "then tell my generals," cried the king, "that he shall have no assistance from me; the honour of this day shall be his, let him show himself worthy of the profession of arms, and let him be indebted to his own merit alone for victory." This speech being reported to the prince and his attendants, it inspired them with new courage; they made a fresh attack upon the French cavalry, and Count Alençon, their bravest commander, was slain. The French being now without a competent leader, were thrown into confusion; their whole army fled, and were put to the sword by the pursuers without mercy, till night stopped the carnage. Never was a victory more seasonable, or less bloody to the English than this. Notwithstanding the great slaughter of the enemy, the conquerors lost but one esquire, three knights, and a few of inferior rank. It is said, that cannon were first used by the English in this battle, of which their army was provided with four pieces.

But this victory was attended with still more substantial advantages; for Edward, as moderate in conquest as prudent in his methods to obtain it, resolved to secure an easy entrance into France for the future. With this view, he laid siege to Calais, that was then defended by John de Vienne, an experienced commander, and supplied with every thing necessary for defence. But it was in vain that the governor made a noble resistance, and that he excluded all the useless mouths from the city, which Edward generously permitted to pass. Edward resolved to reduce it by famine; and it was taken, after a twelvemonth's siege, the defendants having been reduced to the last extremity. He resolved to punish the obstinacy of the townsmen, by the death of six of the most considerable citizens, who offered themselves, with ropes round their necks, to satiate his indignation; but he spared their lives, at the intercession of the queen.

While Edward was reaping victories upon the continent, the Scotch, willing to embrace a favourable opportunity, invaded the frontiers with a numerous army, headed by David Bruce, their king. This, at such a juncture, alarmed the English, but was not capable of intimidating them. Lionel, Edward's son, was yet too young to take upon him the command of an army; but the victories on the continent inspired Philippa, Edward's queen, to take upon her the conduct of

the field, and prepare to repulse the enemy in person. Accordingly, having made lord Percy general under her, she met the Scots at a place called Nevil's Cross, near A. D. Durham, and offered them battle. The Scotch king, 1346. no less impatient to engage, imagined that he might obtain an easy victory against undisciplined troops, headed by a woman. But his army was quickly routed, and driven from the field. Fifteen thousand of his men were cut to pieces; and he himself, with many of his nobles and knights, was carried in triumph to London.

A victory gained by the Black Prince near Poitiers followed not longer after, in which John, king of France, was taken prisoner, and led in triumph through London, amidst an amazing concourse of spectators. Two kings, prisoners in the same court, and at the same time, were considered as glorious achievements; but all that England gained by them was only glory. Whatever was won in France, was successively, and in a manner silently lost, without the mortification of a defeat.

The English, by their frequent supplies, had been quite exhausted, and were unable to continue an army in the field. Charles, who had succeeded his father John, who died a prisoner in the Savoy, cautiously forbore coming to any engagement; and let his enemies waste their strength in attempts to plunder a fortified country. When they were tired, he sallied forth, and possessed himself of such places as they could not defend. He first fell upon Ponthieu; the citizens of Abbeville opened their gates to him; those of St. Valois, Rue, and Crotoy, imitated the example; and the whole country was, in a little time, reduced to total submission. The southern provinces were, in the same manner, invaded by his generals with equal success; while the Black Prince, destitute of supplies from England, and wasted by a cruel and consumptive disorder, was obliged to return to his native country. What, indeed, served to darken the latter part of this splendid reign, was the approaching death of this prince, who expired in 1375, in the forty-sixth year of his age, leaving behind him a character without a single blemish; and a degree of sorrow among the people, that time could scarcely alleviate.

The king was most sensibly affected with the loss of his son; and tried every art to allay his uneasiness. He removed

himself entirely from the duties and burdens of the state, and left his kingdom to be plundered by a set of rapacious ministers. He did not, however, long survive the consequences of this conduct; but died about a year after the prince, at Shene, in Surry, deserted by all his courtiers, even by those who had grown rich by his bounty. He expired in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and fifty-first of his reign, 1377; a prince more admired than beloved by his subjects, and more an object of their applause than their sorrow.

It was in this reign that the order of the Garter was instituted; the number was to consist of twenty-four persons besides the king. A story prevails, but unsupported by any ancient authority, that the countess of Salisbury, at a ball, happening to drop her garter, the king took it up, and presented it to her with these words "*Höni soit qui mal y pense*;" Evil be to him that evil thinks. This accident, it is said, gave rise to the order and the motto.

## CHAPTER XV

RICHARD II.—A. D. 1377—1399.

RICHARD II. the son of the Black Prince, was but eleven years old when he came to the throne of his grandfather. As he was a minor, the government was vested in the hands of his three uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester; and as the late king had left the kingdom involved in wars, which demanded large and constant supplies, the murmurs of the people increased in proportion. The expenses of armaments to face the enemy on every side, and the want of economy in the administration, entirely exhausted the treasury; and a new tax of three groats on every person above fifteen, was granted by parliament as a supply. The indignation of the people had been for some time increasing; but a tax so unequitable, in which the rich paid no more than the poor, kindled the resentment of the latter into a flame. It began in Essex, where a blacksmith, known by the name of Wat Tyler, was the first who excited them to arms. The tax-gatherers coming to his house while he was at work, demanded payment for his daughter, which he refused, alleging she was under the age mentioned in

and retired to Venice, where, in a little time after, he died of a broken heart. Hereford's behaviour on this occasion was resigned and submissive, which so pleased the king, that he consented to shorten the date of his banishment four years; and he also granted him letters patent, ensuring him the enjoyment of any inheritance which should fall to him during his absence; but upon the death of his father, the duke of Lancaster, which happened shortly after, Richard revoked those letters, and retained the possession of the Lancaster estate to himself.

Such complicated injuries served to inflame the resentment of Hereford against the king; and although he had hitherto concealed it, he now conceived a desire of dethroning him. Indeed no man could be better qualified for an enterprise of this nature: he was cool, cautious, discerning, and resolute. He had served with distinction against the infidels of Lithuania; and was esteemed for piety and valour. He was stimulated by private injuries; and had alliances and fortune sufficient to give weight to his measures. He only waited the absence of the king; and Richard's going over into Ireland to quell an insurrection there, was the opportunity he long had looked for.

Accordingly he instantly embarked at Nantz, with a retinue of sixty persons, in small vessels, and landed at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire. The earl of Northumberland, who had long been a malcontent, together with Henry Percy, his son, who, from his ardent valour, was surnamed Hotspur, immediately joined him with their forces. After this junction the concourse of people coming to list under his banner was so great, that, in a few days, his army amounted to threescore thousand men.

Whilst these things were transacting in England, Richard continued in Ireland in perfect security. Contrary winds, for three weeks together, prevented his receiving any news of the rebellion which was begun in his native dominions; wherefore, upon landing at Milford-haven with a body of twenty thousand men, he saw himself in a dreadful situation, in the midst of an enraged people, without any friend on whom to rely; and forsaken by those, who, in the sunshine of his power, had only contributed to his follies. His little army gradually began to desert him, till at last he found that he had not above six thousand men who followed his

standard. Then seeing no other hopes of safety, but to throw himself upon the generosity of his enemy, he sent Hereford word, that he was ready to submit to whatever terms he thought proper to prescribe, and that he earnestly desired a conference. For this purpose, the earl appointed him to meet at a castle within about ten miles of Chester, where he came the next day with his whole army. Richard, who the day before had been brought thither by the duke of Northumberland, descriing his rival's approach from the walls, went down to receive him; while Hereford, after some ceremony, entered the castle in complete armour, only his head was bare, in compliment to the fallen king. Richard received him with that open air for which he had been remarkable, and kindly bade him welcome. "My Lord, the king," returned the earl, with a cool respectful bow, "I am come sooner than you appointed, because your people say, that for one and twenty years you have governed with rigour and indiscretion. They are very ill satisfied with your conduct; but if it please God, I will help you to govern them better for the time to come." To this declaration the king made no other answer, but, "Fair cousin, since it pleases you, it pleases us likewise."

But Hereford's haughty answer was not the only mortification the unfortunate Richard was to endure. After a short conversation with some of the king's attendants, Hereford ordered the king's horses to be brought out of the stable; and two wretched animals being produced; Richard was placed upon one, and his favourite, the earl of Salisbury, upon the other. In this mean equipage they rode to Chester; and were conveyed to the castle with a great noise of trumpets, and through a vast concourse of people, who were no way moved at the sight. In this manner he was led triumphantly along, from town to town, amidst multitudes who scoffed at him, and extolled his rival. Long live the good duke of Lancaster, our deliverer, was the general cry; and thus, after repeated indignities, he was confined a close prisoner in the Tower. The wretched monarch, humbled in this manner, began to lose the pride of a king with the splendours of royalty, and his spirits sunk to his circumstances. There was no great difficulty, therefore, in inducing him to sign a deed, by which he renounced his crown, as being unqualified for governing the kingdom. Upon his



resignation Hereford founded his principal claim; but willing to fortify his pretensions, he called a parliament, which readily approved and confirmed his claims. A frivolous charge of thirty-three articles was drawn up against the king; upon which he was solemnly deposed, and the earl of Hereford elected in his stead, by the title of Henry the IVth. Thus began the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster; which, for several years after, deluged the kingdom with blood; and yet, in the end, contributed to settle and confirm the constitution.

When Richard was deposed, the earl of Northumberland made a motion in the house of peers, demanding the advice of parliament, with regard to the future treatment of the deposed king. To this they replied, that he should be imprisoned in some secure place, where his friends and partisans should not be able to find him. But while he continued alive, the usurper could not remain in safety. Indeed, some conspiracies and commotions, which followed soon after, induced Henry to wish for Richard's death; in consequence of which, an assassin went down to the place of this unfortunate monarch's confinement, in the castle of Pomfret, and with eight of his followers, rushed into his apartment. The king, concluding their design was to take away his life, resolved to sell it as dearly as he could; and, wresting a pole-axe from one of the murderers, he soon laid four of their number dead at his feet. But he was at length overpowered and struck dead with the blow of a pole-axe; although some assert that he was starved in prison. This happened in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. Though his conduct was blamable, yet the punishment he suffered was greater than his offences; and, in the end, his sufferings made more converts to his family and cause, than ever his most meritorious actions could have procured them. He left no posterity, either legitimate or otherwise.

## CHAPTER XVI.

HENRY IV.—A. D. 1399—1412.

Henry soon found that the throne of an usurper is but a bed of thorns. Violent animosities broke out among the

barons in the first session of parliament, and though these commotions were seemingly suppressed by his moderation,

A. D. 1402. that formed against him by the earl of Northumberland was truly formidable. It was in a skirmish between the Scotch and English, that Archibald, earl of Douglas, with many of the Scotch nobility, were taken prisoners by the earl of Northumberland, and carried to Alnwick-castle. When Henry received the news, he sent the earl orders not to ransom his prisoners, as he intended to detain them, in order to increase his demands, in making peace with Scotland. This message was highly resented by the earl of Northumberland, who, by the laws of war that prevailed in that age, had a right to the ransom of all such as he had taken in battle; and he considered the king as his debtor both for security and his crown. Accordingly, stung with this supposed injury, he resolved to overturn a throne which he had the chief hand in establishing. A scheme was laid, in which the Scotch and Welsh were to unite their forces, and to assist Northumberland in elevating Mortimer, as the true heir to the crown of England. When all things were prepared, the earl had the mortification to find himself unable to lead on the troops, being seized with a sudden illness at Berwick. But the want of his presence was well supplied by his son, Harry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, who took the command of the troops, and marched them towards Shrewsbury, in order to join his forces with those of Glendour, a Welsh chieftain, who, some time before, had been exchanged from prison, and had now advanced with his forces as far as Shropshire. Upon the junction of these two armies, they published a manifesto, which aggravated their real grievances, and invented more. Henry was, at first, greatly surprised at the news of this rebellion. But fortune seemed to befriend him on this occasion, he had a small army in readiness, which he intended against the Scotch, and he instantly hurried down to Shrewsbury, that he might give the rebels battle.

Upon the approach of the two armies, both sides seemed willing to give a colour to their cause, by showing a desire of reconciliation; but when they came to open their mutual demands, the treaty was turned into abuse and recrimination. On one side was objected rebellion and ingratitude; on the other, tyranny and usurpation. The two armies were pretty

nearly equal, each consisting of about twelve thousand men; and the animosity on both sides was inflamed to the highest pitch. Accordingly, a very bloody engagement ensued, in which the generals on both sides exerted themselves with great bravery. Henry was seen everywhere in the thickest of the fight; while his valiant son, who was afterwards the renowned conqueror of France, fought by his side, and though wounded in the face by an arrow, still kept the field, and performed astonishing acts of valour. On the other side, the daring Hotspur supported that renown which he had acquired in so many bloody engagements, and everywhere sought out the king as a noble object of indignation. At last, however, his death, from an unknown hand, decided the victory; and the fortune of Henry once more prevailed. On this day, it is said, that no less than two thousand three hundred gentlemen were slain, and about six thousand private men, of whom two-thirds were of Hotspur's army.

While this furious transaction was going forward, Northumberland, who was lately recovered from his indisposition, was advancing with a body of troops to reinforce the army of malcontents, and take upon him the command. But hearing by the way of his son's and brother's misfortune, he dismissed his troops, and for a while attempted to find safety by flight, until pressed by his pursuers, and finding himself totally without resource, he chose to throw himself upon the king's mercy. Upon his appearing before Henry at York, he pretended, that his sole intention in arming was to mediate between the two parties; and this weak apology seemed to satisfy the king, and he was pardoned.

The calm which was thus produced, was employed by Henry in endeavours to acquire popularity, which he had lost by the severities exercised during the preceding  
 A. D. 1407. part of his reign. For that reason he often permitted the house of commons to assume powers which had not been usually exercised by their predecessors. In the sixth year of his reign, when they voted him the supplies, they appointed treasurers of their own, to see the money disbursed for the purposes intended: and required them to deliver in their accounts to the house. They proposed thirty very important articles for the government of the king's household; and, on the whole, preserved their privileges and freedoms more entire during his reign than that of any of his prede-

cessors. But while the king thus laboured to retrieve the reputation he had lost, his son Henry, prince of Wales, seemed equally bent on incurring the public aversion. He became notorious for all kinds of debauchery, and ever chose to be surrounded by a set of wretches, who took pride in committing the most illegal acts with that prince at their head. The king was not a little mortified at this degeneracy in his eldest son, who seemed entirely forgetful of his station, although he had already exhibited repeated proofs of his valour, conduct, and generosity. Such were the excesses into which he ran, that one of his dissolute companions having been brought to trial before Sir William Gascoyne, chief justice of the king's bench, for some misdemeanour, the prince was so exasperated at the issue of the trial, that he struck the judge in open court. The venerable magistrate, who knew the reverence that was due to his station, behaved with a dignity that became his office, and immediately ordered the prince to be committed to prison. When this transaction was reported to the king, who was an excellent judge of mankind, he could not help exclaiming in a transport, "Happy is the king, that has a magistrate endowed with courage to execute the laws upon such an offender; still more happy in having a son willing to submit to such a chastisement!" This, in fact, is one of the first great instances we read in the English history of a magistrate doing justice in opposition to power. Henry, however did not long outlive this transaction. He was subject to fits, which bereaved him, for the time, of his senses; and which at last brought on his death, at Westminster, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

## CHAPTER XVII.

HENRY V.—A. D. 1412—1422.

THE first steps taken by the young king were magnanimous. He called together his former abandoned companions; acquainted them with his intended reformation; exhorted them, to follow his example; and then dismissed them from his presence, allowing them a competency to subsist upon till he saw them worthy of a farther promotion. The faithful

ministers of his father, who at first began to tremble for their justice, in the administration of their duty, were taken into his friendship and confidence. Sir William Gascoyne, who thought himself the most obnoxious, met with due praise, and was exhorted to persevere in the same rigorous and impartial execution of justice.

About this time the heresy of Wickliff, or Lollardism, as it was called, but in truth, the first principles of the reformation, began to spread every day more and more, while it received a new lustre from the protection and preaching of Sir John Oldcastle, baron of Cobham, who had been one of the king's domestics, and stood high in his favour. The primate, however, indicted this nobleman, and with the assistance of his suffragans, condemned him as an heretic to be burnt alive. Cobham having escaped from the Tower, in which he was confined, the day before his execution, privately went among his party, and, stimulating their zeal, led them up to London, to take a signal revenge on his enemies. But the king, apprized of his intentions, ordered that the city gates should be shut; and coming by night with his guards into St. Giles's field, seized such of the conspirators as appeared, and afterwards laid hold of several parties that were hastening to the appointed place. Some of these were executed, but the greater number pardoned. Cobham himself found means of escaping for that time, but he was taken about four years after; and never did the cruelty of man invent, or crimes draw down such torments as he was made to endure. He was hung up with a chain by the middle; and thus at a slow fire burned, or rather roasted, alive.

Henry, to turn the minds of the people from such hideous scenes, resolved to take advantage of the troubles in which France was at that time engaged; and assembling a great fleet and army at Southampton, landed at Harfleur, at the head of an army of six thousand men at arms, and twenty-four thousand foot, mostly archers. But although the enemy made but a feeble resistance, yet the climate seemed to fight against the English; a contagious dysentery carrying off three parts of Henry's army, who began to repent of his rash inroad into a country where disease and a powerful army every where threatened destruction: he, therefore, determined to retire into Calais.

and after he had passed the small river of Ternois at Blangi, he was surprised to observe from the heights the whole French army drawn up in the plains of Agincourt; and so posted, that it was impossible for him to proceed on his march without coming to an engagement. No situation could be more unfavourable than that in which he stood. His army was wasted with disease; the soldiers' spirits worn down with fatigue, destitute of provisions, and discouraged by their retreat. Their whole body amounted but to nine thousand men; and these were to sustain the shock of an enemy near ten times the number, headed by expert generals, and plentifully supplied with provisions. As the enemy was so much superior, he drew up his army in a narrow ground between two woods, which guarded each flank; and patiently expected, in that position, the attack of the enemy. The constable of France was at the head of one army; and Henry himself, with Edward duke of York, commanded the other. For a time both armies, as if afraid to begin, kept silently gazing at each other, neither willing to break their ranks by making the onset; which Henry perceiving, with a cheerful countenance, cried out, "My friends, since they will not begin, it is ours to set them the example; come on, and the blessed Trinity be our protection." Upon this, the whole army set forward with a shout, while the French still waited their approach with intrepidity. The English archers who had long been famous for their great skill, let fly a shower of arrows three feet long, which did great execution. The French cavalry advancing to repel these two hundred bowmen, who lay till then concealed, rising on a sudden, let fly among them and produced such a confusion, that the archers threw by their arrows, and rushing in, fell upon them sword in hand. The French at first repulsed the assailants, who were enfeebled by disease; but they soon made up the defect by their valour; and burst in upon the enemy with such impetuosity, that the French were soon obliged to give way.

They were thrown in every part of the field; their numbers being crowded in a very narrow space, were incapable of either flying or making any resistance; so that they covered the field with heaps of slain. After all appearance of opposition was over, there was heard an alarm from behind, which proceeded from a number of peasants who had

fallen upon the English baggage, and were putting those who guarded it to the sword. Henry now seeing the enemy on all sides of him, began to entertain apprehensions from his prisoners, the number of whom exceeded even that of his army. He thought it necessary, therefore, to issue general orders for putting them to death; but on discovery of the certainty of his victory, he stopped the slaughter, and was still able to save a great number. This severity tarnished the glory which his victory would otherwise have acquired; but all the heroism of that age is tinged with barbarity. In this battle the French lost ten thousand men, and fourteen thousand prisoners; and the English only forty men in all.

A. D. 1417. France was at that time in a wretched situation; the whole kingdom appeared as one vast theatre of crimes, murders, injustice, and devastation. The duke of Orleans was assassinated by the duke of Burgundy; and the duke of Burgundy, in his turn, fell by the treachery of the dauphin. A state of imbecility into which Charles had fallen, made him passive in every transaction; and Henry, at last, by conquest and negotiation, caused himself to be elected heir to the throne. The principal articles of this treaty were, that Henry should espouse the princess Catherine, daughter of the king of France; that king Charles should enjoy the title and dignity for life; but that Henry should be declared heir to the crown, and should be intrusted with the administration of the government; that France and England should for ever be united under one king, but should still retain their respective laws and privileges.

A. D. 1421. In consequence of this, Henry fixed his residence at Paris; and while Charles had but a small court, he was attended with a very magnificent one. On Whitsunday the two kings and their two queens, with crowns on their heads, dined together in public; Charles receiving apparent homage, but Henry commanding with absolute authority. At this time, however, when his glory had nearly reached its summit, and both crowns were devolved upon him, he was seized with a fistula, which soon became mortal. He expired in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign.

## CHAPTER XVIII.

HENRY VI.—A. D. 1422—1

THE duke of Bedford, one of the most accomplished princes of the age, and equally experienced both in the cabinet and the field, was appointed by parliament protector of England, defender of the church, and first counsellor to the king during his minority, as he was not a year old; and as France was the great object that engrossed all consideration, he attempted to exert the efforts of the nation upon the continent with all his vigour.

A new revolution was produced in that kingdom, by means apparently the most unlikely to be attended with success. In the village of Domremi, near Vaucouleurs, on the borders of Lorraine, there lived a country girl, about twenty-seven years of age, called Joan of Arc. This girl had been a servant at a small inn; and in that humble station had submitted to those hardy employments which fit the body for the fatigues of war. She was of an irreproachable life, and had hitherto testified none of those enterprising qualities which displayed themselves soon after. Her mind, however, brooding with melancholy steadfastness upon the miserable situation of her country, began to feel several impulses, which she was willing to mistake for the inspirations of heaven. Convinced of their reality, she had recourse to one Baudricourt, governor of Vaucouleurs, and informed him of her destination by heaven, to free her native country from its fierce invaders. Baudricourt treated her at first with some neglect; but at length willing to make a trial of her pretensions, gave her some attendants to the French court, which at that time resided at Chinon.

The French court were probably sensible of the weakness of her pretensions; but they were willing by any means to support their declining fortunes. It was therefore given out, that Joan was actually inspired; that she was able to discover the king among the number of his courtiers, although he had laid aside all the distinctions of his authority; that she had told him some secrets, which were only known to himself; and that she had demanded and minutely described a sword in the church of St. Catherine



de Firebois, which she had never seen. In this manner the minds of the vulgar being prepared for her appearance, she was armed cap-à-pée, mounted on a charger, and shown in that martial dress, to the people. She was then brought before the doctors of the university; and they readily seconded the imposture.

When the preparations for her mission were completely blazoned, their next aim was to send her against the enemy. The English were at that time besieging the city of Orleans, the last resource of Charles, and every thing promised them a speedy surrender. Joan undertook to raise the siege; and, to render herself still more remarkable, girded herself with the miraculous sword, of which she had before such extraordinary notices. Thus equipped, she ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out; she displayed in her hand a consecrated banner, and assured the troops of certain success. Such confidence on her side soon raised the spirits of the French army; and even the English, who pretended to despise her efforts, felt themselves secretly influenced with the terrors of her mission, and relaxing in their endeavours, the siege was raised with great precipitation. From being attacked, the French now in turn became the aggressors. One victory followed another, and at length the French king was solemnly crowned at Rheims, which was what Joan had promised should come to pass.

A tide of successes followed the performance of this solemnity; but Joan having thrown herself into the city of Compeign with a body of troops that was then besieging by the duke of Burgundy, she was taken prisoner in a sally which she headed against the enemy, the governor shutting the gates behind her. The duke of Bedford was no sooner informed of her being taken, than he purchased her of the Count Vendome, who made her his prisoner, and ordered her to be committed to close confinement. The credulity of both nations was at that time so great, that nothing was too absurd to gain belief that coincided with their passions. As Joan but a little before, from her successes, was regarded as a saint, she was now, upon her captivity, considered as a sorceress, forsaken by the demon who had granted her a fallacious and temporary assistance; and accordingly being

tried at Rouen, she was found guilty of heresy and witchcraft, and sentenced to be burnt alive, which was executed accordingly with the most ignorant malignity.

The English affairs however became totally irretrievable, and the city of Paris returned once more to a sense of its duty. Thus ground was continually, though slowly, gained

A. D. by the French; in the lapse of a few years Calais  
1443. alone remained of all the conquests that had been

made in France; and this was but a small compensation for the blood and treasure which had been lavished in that country. But as the incapacity of Henry appeared in a fuller light, and foreign war was extinguished, the people began to prepare for the horrors of intestine strife, and a new interest was revived, which had lain dormant in the times of prosperity and triumph. Richard, duke of York, was descended, by the mother's side, from Lionel, one of the sons of Edward the Third; whereas, the reigning king was descended from John of Gaunt, a younger son of the same monarch; Richard, therefore stood plainly in succession before Henry; and began to think this a favourable moment for ambition. The ensign of Richard was a white rose, that of Henry a red; and this gave name to the two factions, whose animosity was now about to drench the kingdom with slaughter.

Among the number of complaints which the unpopularity of the government gave rise to, there were some which even excited insurrection; particularly that headed by John Cade, which was of the most dangerous nature. This man was a native of Ireland, who had been obliged to fly over into France for his crimes; but seeing the people upon his return prepared for violent measures, he assumed the name of Mortimer; and at the head of twenty thousand Kentish men advanced towards the capital, and encamped at Blackheath. The king being informed of this commotion, sent a message to demand the cause of their assembling in arms; and Cade, in the name of the community, answered, that their only aim was to punish evil ministers, and procure a redress of grievances for the people. But committing some abuses, and engaging with the citizens, he was abandoned by most of his followers, and retreating to Rochester, was obliged to fly alone into the wolds of Kent, where a price

being set upon his head by proclamation, he was discovered and slain.

In the mean time the duke of York secretly fomented these disturbances, and pretending to espouse the cause of the people, still aspired to the crown, which he was for some time prevented by his own scruples from seizing. What his intrigues failed to bring about, accident produced to his desire. The king falling into a distemper, which so far increased his natural imbecility, that it even rendered him incapable of maintaining the appearance of royalty, York was appointed lieutenant and protector of the kingdom, with powers to hold and open parliaments at pleasure.

Being thus invested with power, he continued in the enjoyment of it for some time; but at length the unhappy king recovering from his lethargic complaint, and, as if awaking from a dream, perceived, with surprise, that he was stripped of all authority. Henry was married to Margaret of Anjou, a woman of a masculine understanding, who obliged him to take the field; and in a manner dragged him to it, where both sides came to an engagement, in which the Yorkists gained a complete victory. The king himself being wounded, and taking shelter in a cottage, was taken prisoner, but was treated by the victor with so great respect and tenderness, that he seemed pleased with his situation, until Margaret once more induced him to assert his prerogative. The contending parties met

A. D. 1454. at Blore-heath, on the borders of Staffordshire, and the Yorkists gained some advantages; but Sir Andrew Trollop, who commanded a body of veterans for the duke of York, deserted, with all his men, to the king; and this so intimidated the whole army of the Yorkists, that they separated the next day without striking a single blow. Several other engagements followed with various success. Margaret being at one time victorious, at another an exile, the victory upon Wakefield-green, in which the duke of York was slain, seemed to fix her good fortune.

But the earl of Warwick, who now put himself at the head of the Yorkists, was one of the most celebrated generals of his age, formed for times of trouble, extremely artful, and incontestably brave; equally skillful in council and the field, and inspired with a degree of hatred against the queen

that nothing could suppress. He commanded an army, in which he led about the captive king to give a sanction to his attempts. Upon the approach of the Lancastrians he conducted his forces, strengthened by a body of Londoners, who were very affectionate to his cause, and gave battle to the queen at St. Alban's. In this, however, he was defeated; about two thousand of the Yorkists perished in the battle, and the person of the king again fell into the hands of his own party, to be treated with apparent respect, but real contempt.

In the mean time, young Edward, the eldest son of the late duke of York, began to repair the losses his party had lately sustained, and to give spirit to the Yorkists. This prince, in the bloom of youth, remarkable for the beauty of his person, his bravery, and popular deportment, advanced towards London with the remainder of Warwick's army; and obliging Margaret to retire, entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people. Perceiving his own popularity, he supposed that now was the time to lay his claim to  
 A. D. the crown; and his friend Warwick, assembling the  
 1461. citizens in St. John's fields, pronounced an harangue, setting forth the title of Edward, and inveighing against the tyranny and usurpation of the house of Lancaster. Both sides at length met near Towson, in the county of York, to decide the fate of the empire, and never was England depopulated by so terrible an engagement. While the army of Edward was advancing to the charge, there happened a great fall of snow; which driving full in the faces of the enemy, blinded them, and this advantage, seconded by an impetuous onset, decided the victory in their favour. Edward issued orders to give no quarter; and a bloody slaughter ensued, in which near forty thousand of the Lancastrians were slain. The weak, unfortunate Henry, was taken prisoner, carried to London with ignominy, and confined in the Tower. Margaret contrived to escape out of the kingdom, and took refuge with her father in Flanders.

Edward being now, by means of the earl of Warwick, fixed upon the throne, reigned in peace and security, while his title was recognised by parliament, and univer-  
 A. D. sally submitted to by the people. He began, there-  
 1464. fore, to give a loose to his favourite passions: and a spirit of gallantry, mixed with cruelty, was seen to prevail

in his court. In the very same palace, which one day exhibited a spectacle of horror, was to be seen the day following a mask or a pageant; and the king would at once gallant a mistress; and inspect an execution. In order to turn him from these unpopular pursuits, the earl of Warwick advised him to marry; and, with his consent, went over to France, to procure Bona of Savoy as queen: and the match was accordingly concluded. But whilst the earl was hastening the negotiation in France, the king married Elizabeth Woodville, with whom he had fallen in love, and whom he had vainly endeavoured to detach. Having thus given Warwick real cause of offence, he widened the breach, by driving him from the council. Warwick, whose prudence was equal to his bravery, soon made use of both to assist his revenge; and formed such a combination against Edward, that he was, in turn, obliged to fly the kingdom, and king Henry was released from prison to be placed upon a dangerous throne. A parliament was called, which confirmed Henry's title with great solemnity, and Warwick was himself received among the people under the title of the King-maker.

But Edward's party, though repressed, was not destroyed. Though an exile in Holland, he had many partisans at home; and after an absence of nine months, being seconded by a small body of forces, granted him by the duke of Burgundy, he made a descent at Ravenspur in Yorkshire. Though, at first, he was coolly received by the English, yet his army increased upon his march, while his moderation and feigned humility added to the number of his partisans. London opened her gates to him; and the wretched Henry was once more plucked from his throne, to be sent back to his former mansion.

Nothing now, therefore, remained to Warwick, but to cut short a state of anxious suspense by hazarding a battle. Edward's fortune prevailed. They met at St. Alban's, and the Lancastrians were defeated, while Warwick himself, leading a chosen body of troops into the thickest of the slaughter, fell in the midst of his enemies, covered with wounds.

Margaret, receiving the fatal news of the death of the brave Warwick, and the total destruction of her party, gave way to her grief, for the first time, in a torrent of tears;

and took sanctuary in the abbey of Beaulieu, in Hampshire, where she soon found some new friends willing to assist her. Tudor, earl of Pembroke, Courtney, earl of Devonshire, the lords Wenlock and St. John, with other men of rank, exhorted her to hope for success, and offered to assist her to the last. She had now fought battles in almost every province of England; Tewkesbury-park was the last scene that terminated her attempts. The duke of Somerset headed her army; a man who had shared her dangers, and had ever been steady in her cause. He was valiant, generous, and polite; but rash and headstrong. When Edward first attacked him in his intrenchments, he repulsed him with such vigour, that the enemy retired with precipitation; upon which the duke, supposing them routed, pursued, and ordered lord Wenlock to support his charge. But unfortunately this lord disobeyed his orders; and Somerset's forces were soon overpowered by numbers. In this dreadful exigence the duke, finding that all was over, became ungovernable in his rage; and beholding Wenlock inactive, and remaining in the very place where he had first drawn up his men, gave way to his fury, with his heavy battle-axe in both hands, he ran upon the coward, and with one blow dashed out his brains.

The queen and the prince were taken prisoners after the battle, and brought into the presence of Edward. The young prince appeared before the conqueror with undaunted majesty; and being asked, in an insulting manner, how he dared to invade England without leave, more mindful of his high birth than of his ruined fortune, he replied; "I have entered the dominions of my father, to revenge his injuries, and redress my own." The barbarous Edward, enraged at his intrepidity, struck him on the mouth with his gauntlet; and this served as a signal for farther brutality: the dukes of Gloucester, Clarence, and others, like wild beasts, rushed on the unarmed youth at once, stabbing him to the heart with their daggers. To complete the tragedy, Henry himself, who had long been the passive spectator of all these horrors, was now thought unfit to live. The duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard the Third, entering his chamber alone, murdered him in cold blood. Of all those that were taken, none were suffered to survive but Margaret herself. It was, perhaps, expected that she would be ransomed by

the king of France ; and they were not deceived, as that monarch paid the king of England fifty thousand crowns for her freedom. This extraordinary woman, after having sustained the cause of her husband in twelve battles ; after having survived her friends, fortunes, and children, died a few years after in privacy in France, very miserable indeed ; but with few other claims to our pity, except her courage and her distresses.

## CHAPTER XIX.

EDWARD IV.—A. D. 1461—1483.

EDWARD being now freed from great enemies, turned his punishments to those of lesser note ; so that the gibbets were hung with his adversaries, and their estates confiscated to his use, but while he was thus rendering himself terrible on the one hand, he was immersed in abandoned pleasures on the other, and his courtiers seemed willing to encourage debaucheries in which they had a share ; and the clergy were ready to lend absolution to all his failings. Enormous vices had been of late so common, that adultery was held as a very slight offence. Among the number of his mistresses was the wife of one Shore, a merchant in the city, a woman of exquisite beauty and good sense, but who had not virtue enough to resist the temptations of a beautiful man and a monarch.

Among his other cruelties, that to his brother the duke of Clarence is the most remarkable. The king hunting one day in the park of Thomas Burdet, a friend of the duke's, killed a white buck, which was a great favourite of the owner. Burdet, vexed at the loss, broke into a passion, and wished the horns of the deer in the belly of the person who advised the king to that insult. For this trifling exclamation Burdet was tried for his life, and publicly executed at Tyburn. The duke of Clarence, upon the death of his friend, vented his grief in renewed reproaches against his brother, and exclaimed against the iniquity of the sentence. The king highly offended with this liberty, or using that as a pretext against him, had him arraigned before the house of peers, and appeared in person as his accuser. In those times of confusion, every crime alleged by the prevailing party was fatal ; the duke was found guilty ; and being granted a choice

of the manner in which he would die, he was privately drowned in a butt of malmsey in the Tower; a whimsical choice, and implying that he had an extraordinary passion for that liquor.

However, if this monarch's reign was tyrannical, it was but short; while he was employed in making preparations for a war with France, he was seized with a distemper, of which he expired in the forty-second year of his age, and (counting from the death of the late king) in the twenty-third of his reign.

## CHAPTER XX.

EDWARD V.—A. D. 1483.

THE duke of Gloucester, who had been made protector of the realm, upon a pretence of guarding the persons of the late king's children from danger, conveyed them both to the Tower. Having thus secured them, his next step was to spread a report of their illegitimacy; and by pretended obstacles, to put off the day appointed for young Edward's coronation. His next aim was to despatch lord Hastings, whom he knew to be warmly in the young king's interest.

Having summoned lord Hastings to a council in the Tower, he entered the room knitting his brows, and setting his lips, and showing, by a frequent change of countenance, the signs of some inward perturbation. A silence ensued for some time; and the lords of the council looked upon each other, expecting some horrid catastrophe. Laying bare his arm all shrivelled and decayed, he accused Jane Shore and her accomplices of having produced this deformity by their sorceries; upon which Hastings cried, "If they have committed such a crime, they deserve punishment." "If!" cried the protector with a loud voice, "dost thou answer me with ifs? I tell thee that they have conspired my death; and that thou, traitor, art an accomplice in the crime." He then struck the table twice with his hands, and the room was instantly filled with armed men. "I arrest thee," continued he, turning to Hastings, "for high treason;" and at the same time gave him in charge to the soldiers. Hastings was obliged to make a short confession to the next priest that was at hand; the protector crying out by St. Paul, that he would not dine till



he had seen his head taken off. He was accordingly hurried out to the Little Green before the Tower chapel, and there beheaded on a log of wood that accidentally lay in the way.

Jane Shore, the late king's mistress, was the next who felt his indignation. This unfortunate woman was an enemy too humble to excite his jealousy; yet as he had accused her of witchcraft, of which she was innocent, he thought proper to make her an example for those faults of which she was really guilty. Jane Shore had been formerly deluded from her husband, who was a goldsmith in Lombard-street, and continued to live with Edward, the most guiltless mistress in his abandoned court. The charge against her was too notorious to be denied; she pleaded guilty, and was accordingly condemned to walk barefoot through the city, and do penance in St. Paul's church in a white sheet, with a wax-taper in her hand, before thousands of spectators. She lived above forty years after this sentence, and was reduced to the most extreme indigence.

The protector now began to throw off the mask, and to deny his pretended regard for the sons of the late king, thinking it high time to aspire to the throne more openly. He had previously gained over the duke of Buckingham, a man of talents and power, by bribes, and promises of future favour. This nobleman, therefore, used all his arts to cajole the populace and citizens at St. Paul's cross, and construing their silence into consent, his followers cried, "Long live king Richard!" Soon after, the mayor and aldermen waiting upon Richard with an offer of the crown, he accepted it with seeming reluctance.

## CHAPTER XXI.

RICHARD III.—A. D. 1483—1485.

ONE crime ever draws on another; justice will revolt against fraud, and usurpation requires security. As soon, therefore, as Richard was seated upon the throne, he sent the governor of the Tower orders to put the two young princes to death; but this brave man whose name was Brackenbury, submissively answered, that he knew not how to imbrue his hands in innocent blood. Sir James Tyrrel, however, readily undertook the office, and Brackenbury was ordered to resign

to him the keys for one night. Tyrrel choosing three associates, Slater, Deighton, and Forest, came in the night-time to the door of the chamber where the princes were lodged, and sending in the assassins, he bid them execute their commission, while he himself staid without. They found the young princes in bed, and fallen into a sound sleep: after suffocating them with the bolster and pillows, they showed their naked bodies to Tyrrel, who ordered them to be buried at the stair-foot, deep in the ground, under a heap of stones.

But while Richard thus endeavoured to establish his power, the duke of Buckingham, who had been instrumental in placing him on the throne, took disgust at being refused some confiscated lands for which he solicited. He therefore levied a body of men in Wales, and advanced, by hasty marches, towards Gloucester, where he designed to cross the Severn. Just at that time the river was swoln to such a degree, that the country on both sides was deluged, and even the tops of some hills were covered with water. This inundation continued for ten days; during which Buckingham's army, composed of Welshmen, could neither pass the river, nor find subsistence on their own side; they were, therefore, obliged to disperse and return home, notwithstanding all the duke's efforts to prolong their stay. In this helpless situation the duke, after a short deliberation, took refuge at the house of one Banister, who had been his servant, and who had received repeated obligations from his family; but Banister, unable to resist the temptation of a large reward that was set upon the duke's head, went and betrayed him to the sheriff of Shropshire; who seized the duke, in the habit of a peasant, and conducted him to Salisbury; where he was instantly tried, condemned and executed. Information now came that the earl of Richmond was making preparations to land in England, and assert his claims to the crown. Richard, who knew not in what quarter he might expect the invader, had taken post at Nottingham, in the centre of the kingdom, and made preparations to oppose the enemy wherever he should land.

Some time after, however, the earl of Richmond, who was a descendant from John of Gaunt, by the female line, resolved to strike for the crown. He had been long obnoxious to the house of York, and had been obliged to quit the

kingdom; but he now knowing how odious the king was, set out from Harfleur in Normandy, with a retinue of about two thousand persons; and after a voyage of six days arrived at Milford-haven, in Wales, where he landed without opposition. Upon news of this descent, Richard, who was possessed of courage and military conduct, his only virtues, instantly resolved to meet his antagonist in battle. Richmond, on the other hand, being reinforced by sir Thomas Bourchier, sir Walter Hungerford, and others, to the number of about six thousand, boldly advanced; and in a few days both armies drew near Bosworth-field, where the contest that had now for more than forty years filled the kingdom with civil commotions, and deluged its plains with blood, was determined by the death of Richard, who was slain in battle, while Richmond was saluted king, by the title of Henry the Seventh.

## CHAPTER XXII.

HENRY VII.—A. D. 1485—1509.

HENRY's first care upon coming to the throne was, to marry the princess Elizabeth, daughter of Edward the Fourth; and thus he blended the interests of the houses of York and Lancaster, so that ever after they were incapable of distinction. A great part of the miseries of his predecessors proceeded from their poverty, which was mostly occasioned by riot and dissipation. Henry saw that money alone could turn the scale of power in his favour; and therefore, hoarded up all the confiscations of his enemies with the utmost frugality. Immediately after his marriage with Elizabeth, he issued a general pardon to all such as chose to accept it; but people were become so turbulent and factious by a long course of civil war, that no governor could rule them, nor any king please; so that one rebellion seemed extinguished only to give rise to another.

There lived in Oxford one Richard Simon, a priest, who possessing some subtlety, and more rashness, trained up Lambert Simnel, a baker's son, to counterfeit the person of the earl of Warwick, the son of the duke of Clarence, who was smothered in a butt of malmsey. But as the impostor was not calculated to bear close inspection, it was thought

proper to show him first at a distance ; and Ireland was judged the fittest theatre for him to support his assumed character.

In this manner king Simnel, being joined by lord Lovel, and one or two more lords of the discontented party, resolved to pass over into England ; and accordingly landed in Lancashire from whence he marched to York, expecting the country would rise and join him. But in this he was deceived ; the people, averse to join a body of German and Irish troops, by whom he was supported, and kept in awe by the king's reputation, remained in tranquillity, or gave all their assistance to the royal cause. The earl of Lincoln, therefore, to whom the command of the rebel army was given, determined to bring the contest to a short issue. The opposite armies met at Stoke, in the county of Nottingham, and fought a battle, which was more bloody, and more obstinately disputed, than could have been expected from the inequality of their forces. But victory at length declared in favour of the king, and it proved decisive. Lord Lincoln perished in the field of battle ; lord Lovel was never more heard of, and it is supposed he shared the same fate. Simnel, with his tutor Simon, were taken prisoners ; and four thousand of the common men fell in battle. Simon, being a priest, could not be tried by the civil power, and was only committed to close confinement. Simnel was too contemptible to excite the king's fears or resentment ; he was pardoned, and made a scullion in the king's kitchen, whence he was afterwards advanced to the rank of falconer, in which mean employment he died.

A fresh insurrection began in Yorkshire ; the people resisting the commissioners who were appointed to levy the taxes, the earl of Northumberland attempted to enforce the king's commands ; but the populace, being by this taught to believe that he was the adviser of their oppressions, flew to arms, attacked his house, and put him to death, and by the advice of one John Achamber, a seditious fellow of mean birth, they chose sir John Egremont for their leader, and prepared themselves for a vigorous resistance. The king, upon hearing this rash proceeding, immediately levied a force which he put under the earl of Surry ; and this nobleman encountering the rebels, dissipated the tumult, and took their leader, Achamber, prisoner. Achamber was shortly afterwards ex-

scuted, but sir John Egremont fled to the court of the duchess of Burgundy, the usual retreat of all who were obnoxious to government in England.

A. D. 1492. . One would have imagined, that from the ill success of Simnel's imposture, few would be willing to embark in another of a similar kind, however, this duchess of Burgundy was determined to disturb that government, which she could not subvert. She first procured a report to be spread, that the young duke of York, said to have been murdered in the Tower, was still living; and finding the rumour greedily received, she soon produced a young man who assumed his name and character. The person pitched upon to sustain this part was one Osbeck, or Warbeck, the son of a converted Jew, who had been over in England during the reign of Edward the Fourth, where he had this son named Peter, but corrupted after the Flemish manner into Peterkin, or Perkin. The duchess of Burgundy found this youth entirely suited to her purposes; and her instructions to personate the duke of York, were easily learned by a youth of very quick apprehension, while his graceful air, his courtly address, his easy manners, and elegant conversation, were capable of imposing upon all but such as were conscious of the imposture. The English, ever ready to revolt, gave credit to all these absurdities; while the young man's prudence served to confirm them. *Amsted*

Among those who secretly abetted the cause of Perkin, were lord Fitzwalter, sir Simon Montford, sir Thomas Thwaites, and sir Robert Clifford. But the person of the greatest weight, was sir William Stanley, the lord chamberlain, and brother to the famous lord Stanley, who had contributed to place Henry on the throne. This personage, either from blind credulity, or restless ambition, entered into a regular conspiracy against the king; and a correspondence was settled between the malcontents in England and those in Flanders. *discontented people*

While the plot was thus carrying on in all quarters, Henry spared neither labour nor expense to detect the falsehood of the pretender to his crown; and was equally assiduous in finding out his secret abettors. For this purpose he dispersed his spies through all Flanders, and brought over, by large bribes, some of those whom he knew to be in the enemy's interest. Among these sir Robert Clifford was the most

remarkable, for the confidence with which he was trusted. From this person Henry learnt the whole of Perkin's birth and adventures, together with the names of all those who had combined to assist him. The king was at first struck with indignation at the ingratitude of many of those about him ; but concealing his resentment for a proper opportunity, he, almost at the same instant, arrested Fitzwalter, Mountford, and Thwaites, together with William Danbery, Robert Ratcliffe, Thomas Cresfenor, and Thomas Astwood. All these were arraigned, convicted, and condemned for high treason. Mountford, Ratcliffe, and Danbery were immediately executed ; the rest received a pardon.

The young adventurer, finding his hopes frustrated in England, went next to try his fortune in Scotland, and James, the Fourth, the king of that country, received him with great cordiality ; he was seduced to believe the story of his birth and adventures ; and he carried his confidence so far, as to give him in marriage lady Catherine Gordon, daughter of the earl of Huntley, a near kinsman of his own ; a young lady eminent for virtue as well as beauty. But not content with these instances of favour, he was resolved to attempt setting him on the throne of England, thinking that all the friends of the house of York would rise in his favour. He therefore entered England with a numerous army, and proclaimed the young adventurer wherever he went. But Perkin's pretensions, attended by repeated disappointments, were now become so stale, that, contrary to expectation, none were found to second them.

A. D. In this manner the restless Perkin being dismissed  
1497. Scotland, and meeting with a very cold reception from the Flemings, who now desired to be at peace with the English, resolved to continue his scheme of opposition ; and took refuge among the wilds and fastnesses of Ireland. Impatient of an inactive life, he held a consultation with his followers, Herne, Skelton, and Astley, three broken tradesmen ; by their advice he resolved to try the affections of the Cornish men, and he no sooner made his appearance among them at Bodmin in Cornwall than the populace, to the number of three thousand, flocked to his standard. Elated with this appearance of success, he took on him for the first time, the title of Richard the Fourth, king of England ; and he led his adherents to the gates of Exeter. But finding the inha-

bitants obstinate in refusing to admit him, and being unprovided with artillery to force an entrance, he broke up the siege of Exeter, and retired to Taunton. His followers by this time amounted to seven thousand men, and appeared ready to defend his cause: but his heart failed him, upon being informed that the king was coming down to oppose him; and he fled privately, and took sanctuary in the monastery of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. His wretched adherents, left to the king's mercy, found him still willing to pardon, and, except a few of the ringleaders, none were treated with capital severity. At the same time some persons were employed to treat with Perkin, and to persuade him, under promise of a pardon, to deliver himself up, and to confess the circumstances of his imposture. His affairs being altogether desperate, he embraced the king's offers without hesitation, and quitted the sanctuary. Henry being desirous of seeing him, he was brought to court, and conducted through the streets of London in a kind of mock triumph, amidst the derision and insults of the populace, which he bore with the most dignified resignation. He was then compelled to sign a confession of his former life and conduct, which was printed and dispersed throughout the nation: but it was so defective and contradictory, that instead of explaining the pretended imposture, it left it still more doubtful than before; and this youth's real pretensions are to this very day an object of dispute among the learned. After attempting once or twice to escape from custody, he was hanged at Tyburn, and several of his adherents suffered the same ignominious death.

There had been hitherto nothing in this reign but plots, treasons, insurrections, impostures, and executions; and it is probable that Henry's severity proceeded from the continual alarms in which they held him. It is certain, that no prince ever loved peace more than he; and much of the ill-will of his subjects arose from his attempts to repress their inclinations for war. The usual preface to all his treaties was, "That when Christ came into the world peace was sung, and when he went out of the world peace was bequeathed." He had all along two points in view; one to depress the nobility and clergy, and the other to exalt and humanize the populace. With this view he procured an act, by which the nobility were granted a power of disposing of their estates; a law infinitely pleasing to the commons, and not disagreeable even to

the nobles, since they had thus an immediate resource for supplying their taste for prodigality, and answering the demands of their creditors. The blow reached them in their posterity alone; but they were too ignorant to be affected by such distant distresses.

He was not less remiss in abridging the pope's power, while at the same time he professed the utmost submission to his commands, and the greatest respect for the clergy. But while he thus employed his power in lowering the influence of the nobles and clergy, he was using every art to extend the privileges of the people. In fact, his greatest efforts were directed to promote trade and commerce; which introduced a spirit of liberty, and disengaged them from all dependence, except upon the laws and the king. Before this great æra, all our towns owed their original to some strong castle in the neighbourhood, where some powerful lord generally resided. These were at once fortresses for protection, and prisons for all sorts of criminals. In this castle there was usually a garrison, armed and provided, depending entirely on the nobleman's support and assistance. To these seats of protection, artificers, victuallers, and shopkeepers, naturally resorted, and settled on some adjacent spot to furnish the lord and his attendants with all the necessaries they might require. The farmers also, and the husbandmen, in the neighbourhood, built their houses there, to be protected against the numerous gangs of robbers, that hid themselves in the woods by day, and infested the open country by night. Henry endeavoured to bring the towns from such a neighbourhood, by inviting the inhabitants to a more commercial situation. He attempted to teach them frugality, and a just payment of debts, by his own example; and never once omitted the rights of the merchant, in all his treaties with foreign princes.

Henry having thus seen England in a great measure civilized by his endeavours, his people pay their taxes without constraint, the nobles confessing subordination, the laws alone inflicting punishment, the towns beginning to live independent of the powerful, commerce every day increasing, the spirit of faction extinguished, and foreigners either fearing England or seeking its alliance, he began to see the approaches of his end, and died of the gout in his stomach, having lived fifty-two years, and reigned  
 A. D. 1509. twenty-three. Since the time of Alfred, England



had not seen such another king. He rendered his subjects powerful and happy, and wrought a greater change in the manners of the people than it was possible to suppose could be effected in so short a time.

## CHAPTER XXIII.

HENRY VIII.—A. D. 1509—1546.

No prince ever came to the throne with a conjuncture of circumstances more in his favour than Henry VIII. now in the eighteenth year of his age. He was at the head of a formidable army, fifty thousand strong, and as a war with France was the most pleasing to the people, he determined to head his forces, for the conquest of that kingdom. But France was not threatened by him alone; the Swiss, on another quarter, with twenty-five thousand men, were preparing to invade it; while Ferdinand of Arragon, whom no treaties could bind, was only waiting for a convenient opportunity of attack on his side to advantage. Never was the French monarchy in so distressed a situation; but the errors of its assailants procured its safety.

After an ostentatious but ineffectual campaign, a truce was concluded between the two kingdoms; and Henry began to dissipate, in more peaceful follies, those immense sums which had been amassed by his predecessor for very different purposes. While, however, his pleasures on the one hand engrossed Henry's time, the preparations for repeated expeditions, exhausted his treasures on the other. As the old ministers, who were appointed to direct him by his father, would not willingly concur in these projects, Henry discontinued asking their advice, and chiefly confided in the counsels of Thomas, afterwards cardinal Wolsey, who complied with all his inclinations, and flattered his sanguine and impetuous temper. He was the son of a private gentleman, and not of a butcher, as is commonly reported, of Ipswich. He was sent to Oxford so early that he was a bachelor at fourteen, and at that time was called the Boy Bachelor. He rose by degrees, upon quitting college, from one preferment to another, till he was made rector of Lymington, by the marquis of Dorset, whose children he had instructed. He had not long resided at this living, when one of the jus-

tices of the peace put him in the stocks for being drunk and raising disturbances at a neighbouring fair. This disgrace, however, did not retard his promotion; for he was recommended as chaplain to Henry the Seventh; and being employed by that monarch in a secret negotiation respecting his intended marriage with Margaret of Savoy, he acquitted himself to the king's satisfaction, and obtained the praise both of diligence and dexterity. That prince having given him a commission to Maximilian, who at that time resided at Brussels, was surprised in less than three days after to see Wolsey present himself before him; and supposing that he had been negligent, began to reprove his delay. Wolsey, however, surprised him with assurances, that he was just returned from Brussels, and had successfully fulfilled all his majesty's commands. His despatch on that occasion procured him the deanery of Lincoln, and in this situation it was that he was introduced by Fox, bishop of Winchester, to the young king's notice, in hopes that he might supplant the earl of Surry, who was the favourite at that time. When introduced at court, he was made a privy counsellor: and as such, had frequent opportunities of ingratiating himself with the young king, being at once complying, submissive, and enterprising. Wolsey used every art to suit himself to the royal temper; he sung, laughed, and danced with every libertine of the court: neither his own years, which were near forty, nor his character as a clergyman, were any restraint upon him, or his companions. To such a weak and vicious monarch as Henry, qualities of this nature were highly pleasing: and Wolsey was soon acknowledged as his chief favourite, and intrusted with the chief administration of affairs. The people began to see with indignation the new favourite's mean condescensions to the king, and his arrogance to themselves. They had long regarded the vicious haughtiness, and the unbecoming splendour of the clergy, with envy and detestation; and Wolsey's greatness served to bring a new odium upon that body. His character being now placed in a more conspicuous point of light, daily began to manifest itself the more. He was insatiable in his acquisitions, but still more magnificent in his expense; of extensive capacity, but still more unbounded in enterprise; ambitious of power, but still more desirous of glory; insinuating, engaging, persuasive, and at other times lofty, ele-

vated, and commanding: haughty to his equals, but affable to his dependents; oppressive to the people; but liberal to his friends; more generous than grateful; formed to take the ascendant in every intercourse, but vain enough not to cover his real superiority.

In order to divert the envy of the public from his inordinate exaltation, he soon entered into a correspondence with Francis the First, of France, who had taken many methods to work upon his vanity, and at last succeeded. In consequence of that monarch's wishes, Henry was persuaded by the cardinal to an interview with that prince. This extensive congress was held between Guisnes and Ardres, near Calais, within the English pale, in compliment to Henry for crossing the sea.

A. D. 1520. Some months before a defiance had been sent by the two kings to each other's court, and through all the chief cities of Europe, importing that Henry and Francis, with fourteen aids, would be ready in the plains of Picardy, to answer all comers that were gentlemen, at tilt and tourney. Accordingly, the monarchs all now gorgeously apparelled, entered the lists on horseback, Francis surrounded with Henry's guards, and Henry with those of Francis. They were both at that time the most comely personages of their age, and prided themselves in their expertness in the military exercises. The ladies were the judges in these feats of chivalry; and they put an end to the encounter whenever they thought proper. It is supposed that the crafty French monarch was willing to gratify Henry's vanity, by allowing him to enjoy a petty preeminence in these pastimes. He ran a tilt against Monsieur Grandeval, whom he disabled at the second encounter. He engaged Monsieur de Montmorency, whom, however, he could not throw from the saddle. He fought at fauchion with a French nobleman, who presented him with his courser, in token of submission.

By such means all the immense treasures of the late king were quite exhausted, and the king relied on Wolsey alone for replenishing his coffers. His first care was to get a large sum of money from the people, under the title of benevolence, which, added to its being extorted, had the mortification of being considered as a free gift, but Wolsey met with some opposition in his attempts to levy this. Having ex-

acted a considerable subsidy from the clergy, he next addressed himself to the house of commons; but they only granted him half the supplies he demanded. Wolsey was at first highly offended at their parsimony, and desired to be heard in the house; but they replied, that none could be permitted to sit and argue there, unless such as had been elected members. This was the first attempt made in this reign to render the king master of the debates in parliament. Wolsey paved the way; and Henry too well improved upon his plans soon after.

Hitherto the administration of all affairs was carried on by Wolsey; for the king was contented to lose in the embraces of his mistresses all the complaints of his subjects. But now a period was approaching that was to put an end to this minister's exorbitant power. One of the most extraordinary and important revolutions that ever employed the attention of man was now ripe for execution. This was no less a change than the Reformation.

The vices and impositions of the church of Rome were now almost come to a head; and the increase of arts and learning among the laity, propagated by means of printing, which had been lately invented, began to make them resist that power, which was originally founded on deceit. Leo

A. D. the Tenth was at that time Pope, and eagerly employed in building the church of St. Peter at Rome.  
1519. In order to procure money for that expensive undertaking, he gave a commission for selling indulgencies, which were to free the purchaser from the pains of purgatory; and they would serve even for one's friends, if purchased with that intention. There were every where shops opened, where they were to be sold; they were even to be had at taverns, brothels, and gaming-houses. The Augustine friars had usually been employed in Saxony to preach the indulgencies, and from this trust had derived both profit and consideration; but the pope's ministers supposing that they had found out illicit methods of secreting the money, transferred this employment from them to the Dominicans. Martin Luther, professor in the university of Wirtemberg, was an Augustine monk, and resenting this transfer of the sale of indulgencies, began to show his indignation by preaching against their efficacy; and being naturally of a fiery temper, and provoked by opposition, he inveighed against the au-

thority of the pope himself. Being driven hard by his adversaries, still as he enlarged his reading, in order to support his tenets, he discovered some new abuse or error in the church of Rome. In this dispute, it was the fate of Henry to be a champion on both sides. His father, who had given him the education of a scholar, permitted him to be instructed in school-divinity, which then was the principal object of learned inquiry. Henry, therefore, willing to convince the world of his abilities, obtained the pope's permission to read the works of Luther, which had been forbidden, under pain of excommunication. In consequence of this, the king defended the seven sacraments, out of St. Thomas Aquinas; and showed some dexterity in this, though it is thought that Wolsey had the chief hand in directing him. A book being thus finished in haste, it was sent to Rome for the pope's approbation, and he, ravished with its eloquence and depth, compared it to the labours of St. Jerome or St. Augustine; and rewarded the author with the title of DEFENDER OF THE FAITH, little imagining that Henry was soon to be one of the most terrible enemies that ever the church of Rome had to contend with.

A. D. Henry had now been eighteen years married to  
1527. Catherine of Arragon, who had been brought over from Spain, and married his elder brother, who died a few months after cohabitation. But notwithstanding the submissive deference paid to the church, Henry's marriage with this princess did not pass without scruple and hesitation, both on his own side, and on that of the people. It happened that among the maids of honour then attending the queen, there was one Anna Bullen, the daughter of sir Thomas Bullen, a gentleman of distinction, and related to most of the nobility. He had been employed by the king in several embassies; and was married to a daughter of the duke of Norfolk. The beauty of Anna surpassed whatever had hitherto appeared at this voluptuous court, and her education which had been at Paris tended to set off her personal charms. Her features were regular, mild, and attractive, her stature elegant, though below the middle size, while her wit and vivacity exceeded even her other allurements. Henry, who never restrained any passion that he desired to gratify, saw and loved her; but, after several efforts found that without marriage he could have no chance of suc-

ceeding. This obstacle, therefore, he hardily undertook to remove; and as his own queen was now become hateful to him, in order to procure a divorce, he alleged that his conscience rebuked him for having so long lived in incest with the wife of his brother. In this pretended perplexity, therefore, he applied to Clement the Seventh, who owed him many obligations, desiring to dissolve the bull of the former pope, which had given him permission to marry Catherine; and to declare that it was not in the power, even of the holy see to dispense with a law so strictly enjoined in Scripture. The unfortunate pope, unwilling to grant, yet afraid to refuse, continued to promise, recant, dispute, and temporize; hoping that the king's passion would never hold out during the tedious course of an ecclesiastical controversy. But Henry had been long taught to dispute as well as he, and quickly wrested many texts in Scripture to favour his opinions or his passions.

During the course of a long perplexing negotiation, on the issue of which Henry's happiness seemed to depend, he had at first expected to find in his favourite Wolsey, a warm defender, and a steady adherent; but Wolsey seemed to be in the same dilemma with the pope. On the one hand he was to please his master the king, from whom he had received a thousand marks of favour; and on the other hand, he feared to disoblige the pope, whose servant he more immediately was, and who had power to punish him. He, therefore, though of all men the most haughty, gave way on this occasion to Campegio, the pope's nuncio, in all things, pretending a deference to his skill in canon law. This was highly displeasing to the king, though he endeavoured to stifle his resentment, until it could act with a more fatal certainty. He for some time looked out for a man of equal abilities and less art; and it was not long before accident threw in his way one Thomas Cranmer, of great talents, and of more integrity.

Thus finding himself provided with a person who could supply Wolsey's place, he executed his resentments against that prelate. The attorney-general was ordered to prepare a bill of indictment against him; and he was soon after commanded to resign the great seal, which was given to sir Thomas More. He was ordered to depart from York-place palace; and all his furniture and plate were converted to the

king's use. The inventory of his goods being taken, they were found to exceed even the most extravagant surmises. Of fine Holland alone there were found a thousand pieces; the walls of his palace were covered with cloth of gold and silver! he had a cupboard of plate of massy gold; and all the rest of his riches and furniture were in proportion. He was soon after arrested by the earl of Northumberland, at the king's command, for high-treason, and preparations were made for conducting him from York, where he then resided, to London, in order to take his trial. He at first refused to comply with the requisition, as being a cardinal; but finding the earl bent on performing his commission, he complied, and set out, by easy journeys, for London. In his way, he staid a fortnight at the earl of Shrewsbury's, where, one day at dinner, he was taken ill, not without violent suspicions of having poisoned himself. Being brought forward from thence, he with much difficulty reached Leicester Abbey; where the monks coming out to meet him, he said, "Father abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you;" and immediately ordered his bed to be prepared. As his disorder increased, an officer being placed near, at once to guard and attend him, he spoke to him a little before he expired, to this effect: "I pray you have me heartily recommended unto his royal majesty; he is a prince of a most royal carriage, and hath a princely heart, and rather than he will miss, or want any part of his will, he will endanger one half of his kingdom. I do assure you, I have kneeled before him for three hours together, to persuade him from his will and appetite, but could not prevail. Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs. But this is the just reward that I must receive for my indulgent pains and study: not regarding my service to God, but only to my prince." He died soon after, in all the pangs of remorse, and left a life which he had all along rendered turbid by ambition, and wretched by mean assiduities.

The tie that held Henry to the church being thus broken, he resolved to keep no farther measures with the pontiff. He therefore privately married Anna Bullen, whom he had created marchioness of Pembroke, the duke of Norfolk, the uncle to the new queen, her father, mother, and doctor Cranmer being present at the ceremony. Soon after, finding

the queen pregnant, he publicly owned his marriage, and, to colour over his disobedience to the pope with an appearance of triumph, he passed with his beautiful bride through London, with a magnificence greater than had been ever known before. But though Henry had thus separated from the church, yet he had not addicted himself to the system of any other reformer. The mode of religion was not as yet known, and as the minds of those who were of opposite sentiments were extremely exasperated, it naturally followed that several must fall a sacrifice in the contest between ancient establishments and modern reformation.

As the monks had shown him the greatest resistance, he resolved at once to deprive them of future power. He accordingly empowered Thomas Cromwell, now secretary of state, to send commissioners into the several counties of England to inspect the monasteries; and to report, with rigorous exactness, the conduct and deportment of such as were resident there. This employment was readily undertaken by some creatures of the court, namely, Layton, London, Price, Cage, Petre, and Belasis, who are said to have discovered monstrous disorders in many of the religious houses. Whole convents of women abandoned to all manner of lewdness, friars accomplices in their crimes, pious frauds everywhere practised to increase the devotion and liberality of the people and cruel and inveterate factions maintained between the members of many of these institutions. These accusations, whether true or false, were urged with great clamour against these communities, and a general horror was excited in the nation against them.

A new visitation was soon after appointed, and fresh crimes were also produced; so that his severities were conducted with such seeming justice and success, that in less than two years he became possessed of all the monastic revenues. These, on the whole, amounted to six hundred and forty-five, of which twenty-eight had abbots, who enjoyed a seat in parliament. Ninety colleges were demolished in several counties; two thousand three hundred and seventy-four chantries and free chapels, and a hundred and ten hospitals. The whole revenue of these establishments amounted to one hundred and sixty-one thousand pounds, which was about a twentieth part of the national income. But as great murmurs were excited by some



upon this occasion, Henry took care that all those who could be useful to him, or even dangerous in cases of opposition, should be sharers in the spoil. He either made a gift of the revenues of the convents to his principal courtiers, or sold them at low prices, or exchanged them for other lands on very disadvantageous terms.

Henry's opinions were at length delivered in a law, which, from its horrid consequences, was afterwards termed the Bloody Statute, by which it was ordained, that whoever, by word or writing, denied transubstantiation, or maintained that the communion in both kinds was necessary, or asserted that it was lawful for priests to marry, or alleged that vows of chastity might be broken, or maintained that private masses were unprofitable, or that auricular confession was unnecessary should be found guilty of heresy, and burned or hanged as the court should determine. As the people were at that time chiefly composed of those who followed the opinions of Luther, and such as still adhered to the pope, this statute, with Henry's former decrees, in some measure excluded both, and opened a field for persecution, which soon after produced its dreadful harvests. Bainham and Bilney were burned for their opposition to popery, and bishop Fisher was beheaded for denying the king's supremacy; and his execution was a prelude to that of sir Thomas More, a man of inflexible integrity, whom no motives could seduce, and no honours corrupt. The most unjustifiable means were employed to effect his destruction, and an ambiguous answer of his, relating to the king's supremacy, was considered as high-treason. He was condemned and beheaded on the sixth of July 1535, in the fifty-third year of his age. His character will bear the ablest support; if we except an unalterable attachment to the popish religion, all was firm, consistent, and manly.

These severities, however, were preceded by one of a different nature arising merely from tyrannical caprice. Anna Bullen, his queen, had been always a favourer of the reformation, and consequently had many enemies on that account, who only waited some fit occasion to destroy her credit with the king; and that occasion presented itself but too soon. The king's passion was by this time quite palled by satiety; and he now languished for the possession of Jane Seymour, who had for some time been maid of honour to the queen.

In the mean time, her enemies were not remiss in raising an accusation against her. The duke of Norfolk, from his attachment to the old religion, took care to produce several witnesses, accusing her of incontinency with some of the meaner servants of the court. Four persons were particularly pointed out as her paramours; Henry Norris, groom of the stole, Weston and Brereton, gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber, together with Mark Smeton, a musician. Accordingly, soon after, Norris, Weston, Brereton, and Smeton were tried in Westminster-hall, when Smeton, was prevailed upon, by the promise of a pardon, to confess a criminal correspondence with the queen; but he was never confronted by her he accused; and his execution with the rest, shortly after, served to acquit her of the charge. Norris, who had been much in the king's favour, had an offer of his life, if he would confess his crime and accuse his mistress; but he rejected the proposal with contempt, and died professing her innocence and his own.

The queen and her brother were tried by a jury of peers: but upon what proof or pretence the crime of incest was urged against them is unknown; the chief evidence it is said, amounted to no more, than that Rochford had been seen to lean on her bed before some company. Part of the charge against her was, that she had declared to her attendants, that the king never had her heart; which was considered as a slander upon the throne, and strained into a breach of a late statute, by which it was declared criminal to throw any slander upon the king, queen, or their issue. The unhappy queen, though unassisted by counsel, defended herself with great judgment and presence of mind, and the spectators could not forbear declaring her entirely innocent. She answered distinctly to all the charges brought against her, but the king's authority was not to be controlled; she was declared guilty; and her sentence ran, that she should be burned or beheaded at the king's pleasure. On the morning of her execution, her sentence being mitigated into beheading, she sent for Kingstone, the keeper of the Tower, to whom, upon entering the prison, she said, "Mr. Kingstone, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am sorry for it; for I thought to be dead before this time, and free from a life of pain." The keeper attempting to comfort her, by assuring her the pain would be very little, she replied, "I have

heard the executioner is very expert; and (clasping her neck with her hands, laughing) I have but a little neck." When brought to the scaffold, from a consideration of her child Elizabeth's welfare, she would not inflame the minds of the spectators against her prosecutors, but contented herself with saying, "that she was come to die as she was sentenced by the law." She would accuse none, nor say any thing of the ground upon which she was judged; she prayed heartily for the king, and called him "a most merciful and gentle prince: that he had always been to her a good and gracious sovereign; and that if any one should think proper to canvass her cause, she desired him to judge the best." She was beheaded by the executioner of Calais, who was brought over, being much more expert than any in England. The very next day after her execution, Henry married the lady Jane Seymour, his cruel heart being no way softened by the wretched fate of one who had been so lately the object of his warmest affections. He also ordered his parliament to give him a divorce between her sentence and execution; and thus he endeavoured to bastardize Elizabeth, the only child he had by her, as he had in the same manner formerly bastardized Mary, his only child by queen Catherine.

Oct. 12, In the midst of these commotions, the fires of  
1537. Smithfield were seen to blaze with unusual fierceness. Those who had adhered to the pope, or those who followed the doctrines of Luther, were equally the objects of royal vengeance and ecclesiastical persecution. From the multiplied alterations which were made in the national systems of belief, mostly drawn up by Henry himself, few knew what to think, or what to profess. They were ready enough indeed, to follow his doctrines, how inconsistent or contradictory soever; but as he was continually changing them himself, they could hardly pursue so fast as he advanced before them. Thomas Cromwell, raised by the king's caprice from being a blacksmith's son to be a royal favourite, together with Cranmer, now become archbishop of Canterbury, both favoured the reformation with all their endeavours. On the other hand Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, together with the duke of Norfolk, were against it. Henry submitted to neither; and thought himself entitled to regulate, by his own single opinion, the religious faith of the whole nation.

Soon after, no less than five hundred persons were imprisoned for contradicting the opinions delivered in the bloody statute; and received protection only from the lenity of Cromwell. Lambert, a schoolmaster, and doctor Barnes, who had been instrumental in Lambert's execution, felt the severity of the persecuting spirit; and by a bill in parliament, without any trial, were condemned to the flames, discussing theological questions at the very stakes. With Barnes were executed one Gerard, and Jerome, for the same opinions. Three Catholics also, whose names were Abel, Featherstone, and Powel, were dragged upon the same hurdles to execution; and declared, that the most grievous part of their punishment, was the being coupled with such heretical miscreants as were united in the same calamity.

During these horrid transactions, Henry was resolved to take another queen, Jane Seymour having died in child-bed; and contracted a marriage with Anne of Cleves, his aim being by her means, to fortify his alliances with the princes of Germany. He hated her, however, the moment he saw her; and resolved to get rid of her and his prime-minister together. He had a strong cause of dislike to him for this alliance; and a new motive was soon added. Henry had fixed his affection on Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk; and the only method of gratifying this new passion was, as in former cases, discarding the present queen to make room for a new one. The duke of Norfolk had long been Cromwell's mortal enemy, and eagerly embraced this opportunity to destroy a man he considered as his rival. He, therefore, made use of all his niece's arts to ruin the favourite; and when his project was ripe for execution, he obtained a commission from the king, to arrest Cromwell for high-treason. His disgrace was no sooner known, than all his friends forsook him, except Cranmer, who wrote such a letter to Henry in his behalf, as no other man in the kingdom would have presumed to offer. However, he was accused in parliament of heresy and treason: and without being ever heard in his own defence, condemned to suffer the pains of death, as the king should think proper to direct. When he was brought to the scaffold, his regard for his son hindered him from expatiating upon his own innocence; he thanked God for bringing him to that death for his transgressions, confessed he had often been seduced, but that he now died in the catholic faith.

Henry thought himself very happy in his new marriage, and was so captivated with the queen's accomplishments, that he gave public thanks for his felicity, but that was of very short duration. While he was at York, upon an intended conference with the king of Scotland, a man of the name of Lassels waited upon Cranmer at London, and gave a very surprising account of the queen's incontinence. When the queen was first examined relative to her crime, she denied the charge; but afterwards finding that her accomplices were her accusers, she confessed her incontinence before marriage, but denied her having dishonoured the king's bed since their union. Three maids of honour, who were admitted to her secrets, still further confirmed her guilt; and the servile parliament quickly found her guilty, and petitioned the king that she might be punished with death; that the same penalty might be inflicted on the lady Rochford, the accomplice in her debaucheries; and on her grandmother, the duchess dowager of Norfolk, together with her father, mother, and nine others, men and women, who were privy to the queen's irregularities. With this petition the king was most graciously pleased to agree; they were condemned to death by an act of attainder, which at the same time made it capital for all persons to conceal their knowledge of the debaucheries of any future queen. It was also enacted, that if the king married any woman who had been incontinent, taking her for a true maid, she should be guilty of treason, in case she did not previously reveal her guilt. The people made merry with this absurd and brutal statute; and it was said, that the king must henceforth look out for a widow. After all these laws were passed, the queen was beheaded on Tower-hill, together with the lady Rochford, who found no great degree of compassion, as she had before tampered in blood.

A. D. 1543. In about a year after the death of the last queen, Henry once more changed his condition by marrying his sixth and last wife, Catherine Parr, who, according to the ridiculous suggestions of the people, was, in fact, a widow. She was the wife of the late lord Latimer; and was considered as a woman of discretion and virtue. She had already passed the meridian of life, and managed this capricious tyrant's temper with prudence and success.

Still, however, the king's severity to his subjects continued as fierce as ever. For some time he had been incommoded by an ulcer in his leg; the pain of which, added to his cor-

puulence, and other infirmities, increased his natural irascibility to such a degree, that scarce any of his domestics approached him without terror. It was not to be expected, therefore, that any who differed from him in opinion, should, at this time particularly, hope for pardon. Though his health was declining apace, yet his implacable cruelties were not the less frequent. His resentments were diffused indiscriminately to all: at one time a protestant, and at another a catholic, each was the object of his severity. The duke of Norfolk, and his son, the earl of Surry, were the last who felt the injustice of the tyrant's groundless suspicions. The duke was a nobleman who had served the king with talents and fidelity; his son was a young man of the most promising hopes, who excelled in all the military exercises which were then in request; he encouraged the fine arts by his practice and example; and was among the first who brought our language, in poetry, to any degree of refinement. He celebrated the fair Geraldina in some of his sonnets, and maintained her superior beauty in all places of public contention. He had, however, dropt some expressions of resentment against the king's ministers, upon being displaced from the government of Boulogne; and the whole family was become obnoxious from the late incontinency of Catherine Howard, the queen, who was executed. From these motives, therefore, private orders were given to arrest the father and son; and accordingly they were arrested both on the same day, and confined to the Tower. Surry being a commoner, his trial was the more expeditious. The duchess dowager of Richmond, Surry's own sister, was among the number of his accusers; and sir Richard Southwell, also, his most intimate friend, charged him with infidelity to the king. Surry denied this, and challenged his accuser to single combat. This favour was refused him, and it was alleged that he had quartered the arms of Edward the Confessor on his escutcheon, which alone was sufficient to convict him of aspiring to the crown. To this he could make no reply; and, indeed, any answer would have been needless; for parliament and juries, during this reign, seem to be guided only by the will of the crown. This young nobleman was, therefore, condemned for high-treason, notwithstanding his eloquent and spirited defence; and the sentence was soon after executed upon him on Tower-hill. In the mean time, the duke endeavoured to mollify the king by letters and submissions: but the mon-

ster's hard heart was rarely subject to tender impressions.

A. D. 1546. The parliament meeting on the fourteenth day of January, a bill of attainder was found against the duke of Norfolk; as it was thought he could not so easily have been convicted on a fair hearing by his peers. The death-warrant was made out, and immediately sent to the lieutenant of the Tower. The duke prepared for death; the following morning was to be his last; but an event of greater consequence to the kingdom intervened, and prevented his execution.

The king had been for some time approaching fast towards his end; and all those about his person plainly saw that his speedy death was inevitable. The disorder in his leg was now grown extremely painful: and this, added to his monstrous corpulency, which rendered him unable to stir, made him more furious than a chained lion. He had been ever stern and severe; he was now outrageous. In this state he had continued for near four years before his death, the terror of all, and the tormentor of himself; his courtiers having no inclination to make an enemy of him, as they were more ardently employed in conspiring the death of each other. In this manner, therefore, he was suffered to struggle, without any of his domestics having the courage to warn him of his approaching end, as more than once during this reign, persons had been executed for foretelling the death of the king. At last, sir Anthony Denny had courage to disclose to him this dreadful secret; and, contrary to his usual custom, he received the tidings with an expression of resignation. His anguish and remorse were at this time greater than can be expressed; he desired that Cranmer might be sent for; but before that prelate could arrive, he was speechless. Cranmer desired him to give some sign of his dying in the faith of Christ; he squeezed his hand, and immediately expired, after a reign of thirty-seven years and nine months, in the fifty-sixth year of his age. Some kings have been tyrants from contradiction and revolt; some from being misled by favourites; and some from a spirit of party: but Henry was cruel from a depraved disposition alone; cruel in government, cruel in religion, and cruel in his family.

## CHAPTER XXIV.

EDWARD VI.—A. D. 1546—1553.

HENRY the Eighth was succeeded on the throne by his only son Edward the Sixth, now in the ninth year of his age. The late king in his will, fixed the majority of the prince at the completion of his eighteenth year; and in the mean time appointed sixteen executors of his will, to whom, during the minority, he intrusted the government of the king and kingdom; the duke of Somerset, as protector, being placed at their head.

The protector, in his schemes for advancing the reformation, had always recourse to the counsels of Cranmer, who, being a man of moderation and prudence, was averse to violent changes, and determined to bring over the people by insensible innovations. A committee of bishops and divines had been appointed by a council to frame a liturgy for the service of the church; and this work was executed with great moderation, precision, and accuracy. A law was also enacted, permitting priests to marry; the ceremony of auricular confession, though not abolished, was left at the discretion of the people, who were not displeased at being freed from the spiritual tyranny of their instructors; the doctrine of the real presence was the last tenet of popery that was wholly abandoned by the people. However, at last, not only this, but all the principal opinions and practices of the Catholic religion, contrary to what the Scripture authorises, were abolished; and the reformation, such as we have it, was al-

A. D. most entirely completed in England. With all these  
1549. innovations the people and clergy in general acquiesced; and Gardiner and Bonner being the only persons whose opposition was thought of any weight, were sent to the Tower, and threatened with the king's further displeasure in case of disobedience.

For all these acts the protector gained great applause and popularity: but his enemies were numerous in proportion to his exaltation. Of all the ministers of that time in the council, Dudley earl of Warwick, was the most artful, ambitious, and unprincipled. Resolved, at any rate, to possess the principal place under the king, he cared not what means were to be used in acquiring it, and covered the most exorbi-



tant views under the fairest appearances. Having associated himself with the earl of Southampton, he formed a strong party in the council, who were determined to free themselves from the control the protector assumed over them. That nobleman was, in fact, now grown obnoxious to a very prevailing party in the kingdom. He was hated by the nobles for his superior magnificence and power; he was hated by the catholic party for his regard to the reformation; he was disliked by many for his severity to his brother: besides, the great estate he had raised at the expense of the church and the crown, rendered him obnoxious to all. The palace which he was then building in the Strand, served also by its magnificence, and still more by the unjust methods that were taken to raise it, to expose him to the censures of the public. The parish-church of St. Mary, with three bishops' houses, were pulled down to furnish ground and materials for the structure.

He was soon afterwards sent to the Tower, and the chief article of which he was accused, was his usurpation of the government, and the taking all power into his own hands: and others of a slighter tint were added, but none of them could be said to amount to high-treason. In consequence of these, a bill of attainder was preferred against him in the house of lords; but Somerset contrived, for this time, to elude the rigour of their sentence, by having previously, on his knees, confessed the charge before the members of the council. In consequence of this confession, he was deprived of all his offices and goods, together with a great part of his landed estate, which was forfeited to the use of the crown. This fine on his estate was soon after remitted by the king, and Somerset once more, contrary to the expectation of all, recovered his liberty. He was even readmitted into the council; happy for him if his ambition had not revived with his security.

In fact, he could not help now and then bursting out into invectives against the king and government, which were quickly carried to his secret enemy the earl of Warwick, who was now become duke of Northumberland. As he was surrounded with that nobleman's creatures, they took care to reveal all the designs which they had themselves first suggested; and Somerset soon found the fatal effects of his rival's resentment. He was, by Northumberland's command,

arrested with many more accused of being his partisans ; and was, with his wife the duchess, thrown into prison. He was now accused with having formed a design to raise an insurrection in the north ; of attacking the train-bands on a muster-day ; of plotting to secure the Tower, and to excite a rebellion in London. These charges he strenuously denied ; but he confessed that he had laid a project for murdering Northumberland, Northampton, and Pembroke, at a banquet, which was to be given them by lord Paget. He was soon after brought to a trial before the Marquis of Winchester, who sat as high-steward on the occasion, with twenty-seven peers more, including Northumberland, Pembroke, and Northampton, who were at once his judges and accusers ; and being found guilty, brought to the scaffold on Tower-hill, where he appeared without the least emotion, in the midst of a vast concourse of the populace, by whom he was beloved. He spoke to them with great composure, protesting that he had always promoted the service of the king, and the interests of true religion, to the best of his power. The people attested their belief of what he said, by crying out, " It is most true." An universal tumult was beginning to take place, but Somerset desiring them to be still, and not interrupt his last meditations, but to join with him in prayer, he laid down his head, and submitted to the stroke of the executioner.

In the mean time, Northumberland had long aimed at the first authority ; and the infirm state of the king's health opened alluring prospects to his ambition. He represented to that young prince, that his sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, who were appointed by Henry's will to succeed, in failure of direct heirs to the crown, had been both declared illegitimate by parliament ; that the queen of Scots, his aunt, stood excluded by the king's will, and being an alien, also, lost all right of succeeding ; and as the three princesses were thus legally excluded, the succession naturally devolved to the marchioness of Dorset, whose next heir was the lady Jane Grey, a lady every way accomplished for government, as well by the charms of her person as the virtues and acquirements of her mind. The king who had long submitted to all the politic views of this designing minister, agreed to have the succession submitted to council, where Northumberland had influence soon after to procure an easy concurrence.

In the mean time, as the king's health declined, his first

aim was to secure the interests of the marquis of Dorset, father of lady Jane Grey, by procuring for him the title of duke of Suffolk, which was lately become extinct. Having thus obliged this nobleman, he then proposed a match between his fourth son lord Guildford Dudley, and the lady Jane Grey, whose interests he had been at so much pains to advance, and he married his own daughter to lord Hastings with all possible pomp and festivity. Meanwhile, Edward continued to languish; and several fatal symptoms of a consumption began to appear, and it was remarked by some, that his health was visibly seen to decline, from the time that the Dudley's were brought about his person. The character of Northumberland might have justly given some colour to suspicion; and his moving all, except his own emissaries, from about the king, still farther increased the distrusts of the people. Northumberland, however was no way uneasy at their murmurs: he was assiduous in his attendance upon the king, and professed the most anxious concern for his safety, but still drove forward his darling scheme of transferring the succession to his own daughter-in-law.

The young king was put into the hands of an ignorant woman, who very confidently undertook his cure. After the use of her medicines, all the bad symptoms increased to a most violent degree; he felt a difficulty of speech and breathing; his pulse failed, his legs swelled, his colour became livid, and many other symptoms appeared. July 6, 1553. He expired at Greenwich, in the sixteenth year of his age, and the seventh of his reign, greatly regretted by all, as his early virtues gave a prospect of the continuance of a happy reign.

## CHAPTER XXV.

MARY.—A. D. 1553—1558.

UPON the death of Edward, two candidates put in their pretensions to the crown; Mary, Henry's daughter by Catherine of Arragon, relying on the justness of her cause; and lady Jane Grey, being nominated in the late young king's will, and upon the support of the duke of Northumberland, her father-in-law. Mary was strongly bigotted to the popish superstitions, having been bred up among churchmen, and

having been even taught to prefer martyrdom to a denial of belief. As she had lived in continual restraint, she was reserved and gloomy: she had, even during the life of her father, the resolution to maintain her sentiments, and refused to comply with his new institutions. Her zeal had rendered her furious. On the other hand, lady Jane Grey was strongly attached to the reformers; and though yet but sixteen, her judgment had attained to such a degree of maturity, as few have been found to possess. All historians agree, that the solidity of her understanding, improved by continual application, rendered her the wonder of the age. But she was in a great measure ignorant of all the transactions in her favour, and was struck with equal grief and surprise when she received intelligence of them. She shed a flood of tears, appeared inconsolable, and it was not without the utmost difficulty that she yielded to the entreaties of Northumberland, and the duke her father. Orders were given, also, for proclaiming her throughout the kingdom; but these were but very remissly obeyed, and very coolly received.

In the mean time, Mary, who had retired, upon the news of the king's death, to Kenning-hall, in Norfolk, sent circular letters, to all the great towns and nobility in the kingdom, reminding them of her right, and commanding them to proclaim her without delay, and in a little time she was at the head of forty thousand men; while the few who attended Northumberland, continued so irresolute, that he feared to lead them to the encounter.

Lady Jane, thus finding that all was lost, resigned her royalty, which she had held but ten days, with marks of real satisfaction, and retired with her mother to their own habitation. Northumberland also, who found that it was impossible to stem the tide of popular opposition, attempted to quit the kingdom; but he was prevented by the band of pensioner-guards, who informed him that he must stay to justify their conduct in being led out against their lawful sovereign. Thus circumvented on all sides, he delivered himself up to Mary, and was soon afterwards executed in a summary way. Sentence was also pronounced against lady Jane and lord Guildford, but without any intention, for the present, of putting it in execution.

Mary now entered London, and with very little effusion of blood, saw herself joyfully proclaimed, and peaceably

settled on the throne. This was a flattering prospect, but Mary was morose, and a bigot; she was resolved to give back their former power to the clergy; and thus once more to involve the kingdom in all the horrors it had just emerged from. The bishops, Gardiner, Tonstal, Day, Heath, and **Vesey**, who had been confined, or suffered losses for their catholic opinions, during the late reigns, were taken from prison, reinstated in their sees, and their former sentences repealed. A parliament, which the queen called soon after, at one blow repealed all the statutes with regard to religion, which had passed during the reign of her predecessors; so that the national religion was again placed on the same footing on which it stood at the death of Henry the Eighth.

While religion was thus turning to its primitive abuses, the queen's ministers, who were willing to strengthen her power by a catholic alliance, had been some time looking out for a proper consort; and pitched upon Philip, prince of Spain, son of the celebrated Charles the Fifth. In order to avoid any disagreeable remonstrances from the people, the articles of marriage were drawn as favourable as possible to the interests and honour of England; and this in some measure stilled their clamours; yet their discontents rose to the pitch of an insurrection, headed by sir Thomas Wyat; who being made prisoner, was condemned and executed with some of his adherents.

But what most excited the compassion of the people was, the execution of lady Jane Grey, and her husband lord Guildford Dudley, who were involved in the punishment, though not in the guilt, of this insurrection. Two days after Wyat was apprehended, lady Jane, and her husband were ordered to prepare for death. Lady Jane, no way surprised at the message, bore it with heroic resolution; and being informed that she had three days to prepare, seemed displeased at so long a delay. On the day of her execution, her husband desired permission to see her; but this she refused, as she knew parting would be too tender for her fortitude to withstand. The place at first designed for their execution was without the Tower; but their beauty, youth, and innocence, being likely to raise an insurrection, orders were given that they should be executed within the Tower. Lord Dudley was the first who suffered; and while the lady Jane was conducting to the place of execution, she was met

by the officers of the Tower bearing along the headless body of her husband, streaming with blood, in order to be interred in the Tower chapel. She looked on the corpse for some time without any emotion; and then, with a sigh, desired them to proceed. On the scaffold she made a speech, in which she alleged, that her offence was not the having laid her hand upon the crown, but the not rejecting it with sufficient constancy; that she had less-erred through ambition than filial obedience; and she willingly accepted death as the only atonement she could make to the injured state; and was ready by her punishment to show, that innocence is no plea in excuse for deeds that tend to injure the community. After speaking to this effect, she caused herself to be disrobed by her woman, and, with a steady, serene countenance, submitted to the executioner.

At the head of those who drove these violent measures forward were Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and cardinal Pole, who was now returned from Italy. Pole, who was nearly allied to the royal family, had always conscientiously adhered to the catholic religion, and had incurred Henry's displeasure, not only by refusing to assent to his measures, but by writing against him. It was for this adherence that he was cherished by the pope, and now sent over to England as legate from the holy see. Gardiner was a man of a very different character; his chief aim was to please the reigning prince; and he had shown already many instances of his prudent conformity. A persecution, therefore, began by the martyrdom of Hooper, bishop of Gloucester, and Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's. They were examined by commissioners appointed by the queen, with the chancellor at the head of them.

Saunders and Taylor, two other clergymen, whose zeal had been distinguished in carrying on the reformation, were the next who suffered. Bonner, bishop of London, bloated without restraint; and seemed to take a pleasure in the pains of the unhappy sufferer; while the queen, by her letters, exhorted him to pursue the pious work without pity or interruption. Soon after, in obedience to her commands, Ridley, bishop of London, and the venerable Latimer, bishop of Worcester, were condemned together. Ridley had been one of the ablest champions for the reformation; his piety, learning, and solidity of judgment, were admired

by his friends, and dreaded by his enemies. The night before his execution, he invited the mayor of Oxford and his wife to see him; and when he beheld them melted in tears, he himself appeared quite unmoved, inwardly supported and comforted in that hour of agony. When he was brought to the stake to be burnt, he found his old friend Latimer there before him. Of all the prelates of that age, Latimer was the most remarkable for his unaffected piety, and the simplicity of his manners. He had never learned to flatter in courts; and his open rebuke was dreaded by the great. His sermons, which remain to this day, show that he had much learning, and much wit; and there is an air of sincerity running through them, not to be found elsewhere. When Ridley began to comfort his ancient friend, Latimer, on his part, was as ready to return the kind office. "Be of good cheer, brother," cried he, "we shall this day kindle such a torch in England, as, I trust in God shall never be extinguished."

A furious bigot ascended to preach to them and the people, while the fire was preparing: and Ridley gave a most serious attention to his discourse. No way distracted by the preparations about him, he heard him to the last; and then told him, that he was ready to answer all that he had preached upon, if he were permitted a short indulgence: but this was refused him. At length, fire was set to the pile; Latimer was soon out of pain, but Ridley continued to suffer much longer, his legs being consumed before the fire reached his vitals.

Archbishop Cranmer's death followed soon after, and struck the whole nation with horror. His love of life had formerly prevailed. In an unguarded moment he was induced to sign a paper condemning the reformation; and now his enemies, as we are told of the devil, after having rendered him completely wretched, resolved to destroy him. Being led to the stake, and the fire beginning to be kindled round him, he stretched forth his right hand, and held it in the flames till it was consumed, while he frequently cried out, in the midst of his sufferings, "That unworthy hand!" at the same time exhibiting no appearance of pain or disorder. When the fire attacked his body he seemed to be quite insensible of his tortures; his mind was occupied wholly upon the hopes of a future reward. After his body was destroyed,

his heart was found entire; an emblem of the constancy with which he suffered.

It was computed, that during this persecution, two hundred and seventy-seven persons suffered by fire, besides those punished by imprisonment, fines, and confiscations. Among those who suffered by fire, were five bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight lay gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, one hundred husbandmen, fifty-five women, and four children. All this was terrible: and yet the temporal affairs of the kingdom did not seem to be more successful.

Calais, that had now for above two hundred years A. D. been in the possession of the English, was attacked, 1557. and by a sudden, unexpected assault, being blocked up on every side, was obliged to capitulate; so that in less than eight days the duke of Guise recovered a city that had been in possession of the English since the time of Edward the Third, and which he had spent eleven months in besieging. This loss filled the whole kingdom with murmurs, and the queen with despair: she was heard to say, that when dead, the name of Calais would be found engraven on her heart.

These complicated evils, a murmuring people, an increasing heresy, a disdainful husband, and an unsuccessful war, made dreadful depredations on Mary's constitution. She began to appear consumptive, and this rendered her mind still more morose and bigoted. The people now, therefore, began to turn their thoughts to her successor; and the princess Elizabeth came into a greater degree of consideration than before.

Mary had long been in a very declining state of health; and having mistaken her dropsy for a pregnancy, she made use of an improper regimen, which had increased the disorder. Every reflection now tormented her. The consciousness of being despised by her subjects, and the prospect of Elizabeth's succession, whom she hated; all these preyed upon her mind, and threw her into a lingering fever, of which she died, after a short and unfortunate reign of five years, four months, and eleven days, in the forty-third year of her age.



## HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

### CHAPTER XXVI.

ELIZABETH.—A. D. 1558—1602.

Nothing could exceed the joy that was diffused among the people upon the accession of Elizabeth, who now came to the throne without any opposition. This favourite of the people, from the beginning, resolved upon reforming the church, even while she remained in the constraints of a prison; and now, upon coming to the crown, she immediately set about it. A parliament soon after completed what the prerogative had begun; act after act was passed in favour of the reformation: and, in a single session, that form of religion was established which we at present have the happiness to enjoy.

A state of permanent felicity is not to be expected here: and Mary Stuart, commonly called Mary queen of Scots, was the first person who excited the fears or the resentment of Elizabeth. Henry the Seventh had married his eldest daughter, Margaret, to James, king of Scotland, who dying, left no issue that came to maturity, except Mary, afterwards surnamed queen of Scots. At a very early age this princess, possessed of every accomplishment of person and mind, was married to Francis the dauphin of France, who dying, left her a widow at the age of nineteen. Upon the death of Francis, Mary, the widow, still seemed disposed to keep up the title; but finding herself exposed to the persecution of the dowager queen, who now began to take the lead in France, she returned home to Scotland, where she found the people strongly impressed with the reforming principles of the times. A difference in religion between the sovereign and the people is ever productive of bad effects. Mary could not but regard the manners of the reformed clergy, who now bore sway among the Scots, with a mixture of ridicule and hatred; while they looked on the gaities and levities which she introduced, with abhorrence, and resentment. Their mutual jealousy every day grew stronger; the clergy waited only for some indiscretion in the queen to fly out into open opposition; which she soon gave them.

Mary, upon her return, had married the earl of Daruley; a weak and ignorant man; violent, yet variable in his enterprises; insolent, yet credulous, and easily governed by flatterers. She soon, therefore, began to convert her admiration

into disgust ; and Darnley, enraged at her increasing coldness, pointed his vengeance against every person he supposed the cause of this change in her sentiments and behaviour. There was then in the court one David Rizzio, the son of a musician at Turin, himself a musician, whom Mary took into her confidence. She consulted him on all occasions ; no favours could be obtained but by his intercession, and all suitors were first obliged to gain Rizzio to their interests, by presents or by flattery. It was easy to persuade a man of Darnley's jealous temper, that Rizzio was the person who had estranged the queen's affections from him. He soon, therefore, consulted some of the lords of his party, who accompanying him into the queen's apartment, where Rizzio then was, dragged him into the antichamber, where he was despatched with fifty-six wounds ; the unhappy princess continuing her lamentations, while they were perpetrating their horrid intent. Being informed, however, of his fate, Mary at once dried her tears, and said she would weep no more, for she would now think of revenge.

She therefore concealed her resentment, and so far imposed upon Darnley her husband, that he put himself under her protection, and soon after attended her to Edinburgh, where he was told the place would be favourable to his declining health. Mary lived in the palace of Holyrood-house ; but as the situation of that place was low, and the concourse of persons about the court might disturb him in his present infirm state, she fitted up an apartment for him in a solitary house at some distance, called the Kirk of Field. Mary there gave him marks of kindness and attachment ; she conversed cordially with him, and she lay some nights in a room under him. It was on the ninth of February that she told him she would pass that night in the palace, because the marriage of one of her servants was to be there celebrated in her presence. But about two o'clock in the morning, the whole city was much alarmed at hearing a great noise ; the house in which Darnley lay was blown up with gunpowder. His dead body was found at some distance in a neighbouring field, but without any marks of violence or contusion. No doubt could be entertained but that Darnley was murdered ; and the general suspicion fell upon Bothwell, a person lately taken into Mary's favour, who, though accused of being stained with the husband's blood, and universally odious to the peo-

ple, had the boldness, while Mary was on her way to Stirling, on a visit to her son, to seize her at the head of a body of eight hundred horse, and to carry her to Dunbar, where he forced her to yield to his purposes. It was then thought by the people that the measure of his crimes was complete; and that he who was supposed to kill the queen's husband, and to have offered violence to her person, could expect no mercy: but they were astonished upon finding, instead of disgrace, that Bothwell was taken into more than former favour; and, to crown all, that he was married to Mary, having divorced his own wife to procure this union.

This was a fatal alliance to Mary, and the people were now wound up by the complication of her guilt, to pay very little deference to her authority. An association was formed that took Mary prisoner, and sent her into confinement to the castle of Lochleven, situated in a lake of that name, where she suffered all the severities of an unkind keeper, and an upbraiding conscience, with a feeling heart. Mary, however, by her charms and promises, engaged a young gentleman, one George Douglass, to assist her in escaping, and this he effected, by conveying her in disguise in a small boat rowed by himself ashore; and the news of her enlargement being spread abroad, all the loyalty of the people seemed to revive, and in a few days she saw herself at the head of six thousand men. But a battle was fought at Langside, near Glasgow, which was entirely decisive against her, and now being totally ruined, she fled southwards from the field of

A. D. battle with great precipitation, and came, with a few  
1568. attendants, to the borders of England, where she hoped for protection from Elizabeth; but she, instead of protecting, ordered her to be put into confinement, treating her, however, with all proper marks of respect.

She was accordingly sent to Tutbury castle, in the county of Stafford, and put under the custody of the earl of Shrewsbury; where she had hopes given her of one day coming into favour, and that unless her own obstinacy prevented, an accommodation might at last take place. The duke of Norfolk was the only peer who enjoyed the highest title of nobility in England; and the qualities of his mind corresponded to his high station. Beneficent, affable, and generous, he had acquired the affections of the people; and yet, from his moderation, he had never alarmed the jealousy of the sove-

reign. He was at this time a widower, and being of a suitable age to espouse the queen of Scots, her own attractions, as well as his interests, made him desirous of the match. Elizabeth, however, dreaded such an union, and the duke was soon after made prisoner and sent to the Tower. Upon his releasement from thence, new projects were set on foot by the enemies of the queen and the reformed religion, secretly fomented by Rodolphi, an instrument in the court of Rome, and the bishop of Ross, Mary's minister in England. It was concerted by them that Norfolk should renew his designs upon Mary, and raise her to the throne, to which it is probable he was prompted by passion as well as interest; and this nobleman entering into their schemes, he, from being at first only ambitious, now became criminal. His servants were brought to make a full confession of their master's guilt; and the bishop of Ross, soon after, finding the whole discovered, did not scruple to confirm their testimony. The duke was instantly committed to the Tower, and ordered to prepare for his trial. A jury of twenty-five peers unanimously passed sentence upon him; and the queen, four months after reluctantly signed the warrant for his execution. He died with great calmness and constancy; and though he cleared himself of any disloyal intentions against the queen's authority, he acknowledged the justice of the sentence by which he suffered.

These conspiracies served to prepare the way for Mary's ruin, whose great misfortunes proceeded rather from the violence of her friends, than the malignity of her enemies. Elizabeth's ministers had long been waiting for some signal instance of the captive queen's enmity, which they could

A. D. easily convert into treason; and this was not long wanting. About this time one John Ballard, a popish priest who had been bred in the English seminary at

Rheims, resolved to compass the death of the queen, whom he considered as the enemy of his religion; and with that gloomy resolution came over to England in the disguise of a soldier, with the assumed name of Captain Fortescue. He bent his endeavours to bring about at once the project of an assassination, an insurrection, and an invasion. The first person he addressed himself to was Anthony Babington, of Dethick, in the county of Derby, a young gentleman of good family, and possessed of a very plentiful fortune. This per-

son had long been remarkable for his zeal in the catholic cause, and in particular for his attachment to the captive queen. He therefore came readily into the plot, and procured the concurrence and assistance of some other associates in this dangerous undertaking. The next step was, to apprize Mary of the conspiracy formed in her favour, and this they effected by conveying their letters to her by means of a brewer, who supplied the family with ale, through a chink in the wall of her apartment. In these Babington informed her of a design laid for a foreign invasion, the plan of an insurrection at home, the scheme for her delivery, and the conspiracy for assassinating the usurper by six noble gentlemen, as he termed them, all of them his private friends, who, from the zeal which they bore the catholic cause, and her majesty's service, would undertake the tragical execution. To these Mary replied, that she approved highly of the design; that the gentlemen might expect all the rewards which it should be ever in her power to confer; and that the death of Elizabeth was a necessary circumstance, previous to any further attempts, either for her delivery, or the intended insurrection.

The plot being thus ripe for execution, and the evidence against the conspirators incontestible, Walsingham, who was privately informed of all, resolved to suspend their punishment no longer. A warrant was accordingly issued out for the apprehending of Babington, and the rest of the conspirators, who endeavoured to keep themselves concealed. But they were soon discovered, thrown into prison, and brought to trial. Fourteen were condemned and executed, seven of whom died acknowledging their crime.

The execution of these wretched men only prepared the way for one of still greater importance, in which a captive queen was to submit to the unjust decisions of those who had no right, but that of power, to condemn her. Accordingly a commission was issued to forty peers, with five judges, or the major part of them, to try and pass sentence upon Mary, daughter and heir of James the Fifth, king of Scotland, commonly called queen of Scots, and dowager of France.

Nov. 11, Thirty-six of these commissioners arriving at  
1586. the castle of Fotheringay, presented her with a letter from Elizabeth, commanding her to submit to a trial for her late conspiracy. The principal charge against her was urged by Serjeant Gaudy, who accused her

with knowing, approving and consenting to Babington's conspiracy. This charge was supported by Babington's confession, and by the copies which were taken of their correspondence in which her approbation of the queen's murder was expressly declared.

Whatever might have been this queen's offences, it is certain that her treatment was very severe. She desired to be put in possession of such notes as she had taken preparative to her trial; but this was refused her. She demanded a copy of her protest; but her request was not complied with; she even solicited an advocate to plead her cause against so many learned lawyers as had undertaken to urge her accusations, but all her demands were rejected; and, after an adjournment of some days, sentence of death was pronounced against her in the Star-chamber, in Westminster, all the commissioners except two being present.

Whether Elizabeth was really sincere in her apparent reluctance to execute Mary is doubtful. Certainly there were great arts used by the courtiers to determine her to the side of severity; as they had every thing to fear from the resentment of Mary, in case she ever succeeded to the throne. Accordingly, the kingdom was now filled with rumours of plots, treasons, and insurrections; and the queen was continually kept in alarm by fictitious dangers. She, therefore, appeared to be in great terror and perplexity; she was observed to sit much alone, and to mutter to herself half sentences, importing the difficulty and distress to which she was reduced. In this situation, she one day called her secretary, Davison, whom she ordered to draw out secretly the warrant for Mary's execution, informing him, that she intended to keep it by her, in case any attempt should be made for the delivery of that princess. She signed the warrant, and then commanded it to be carried to the chancellor to have the seal affixed to it. Next morning, however, she sent two gentlemen successively to desire that Davison would not go to the chancellor, until she should see him: but Davison telling her that the warrant had been already sealed, she seemed displeased at his precipitation. Davison, who probably, wished himself to see the sentence executed, laid the affair before the council, who unanimously resolved that the warrant should be immediately put into execution, and promised to justify Davison to the queen.

Accordingly, the fatal instrument was delivered to Beale, who summoned the noblemen to whom it was directed, namely, the earls of Shrewsbury, Derby, Kent, and Cumberland, and these together set out for Fotheringay-castle, accompanied by two executioners.

Mary, on their arrival, was ordered to prepare for death by eight o'clock next morning, when she dressed herself in a rich habit of silk and velvet, which she had reserved for this solemn occasion. Thomas Andrews, the undersheriff of the county, then informed her, that the hour was come, and that he must attend her to the place of execution. She replied, that she was ready; and bidding her servants farewell, she proceeded, supported by two of her guards, and followed the sheriff with a serene, composed aspect, with a long veil of linen on her head, and in her hand a crucifix of ivory.

She then passed into another hall, the noblemen and the sheriff going before, and Melvil, her master of the household, bearing up her train, where was a scaffold erected and covered with black. As soon as she was seated, Beale began to read the warrant for her execution. Then Fletcher, dean of Peterborough, standing without the rails, repeated a long exhortation, which she desired him to forbear, as she was firmly resolved to die in the catholic religion. The room was crowded with spectators, who beheld her with pity and distress, while her beauty, though dimmed by age and affliction, gleamed through her sufferings, and was still remarkable in this fatal moment. The two executioners kneeling, and asking her pardon, she ~~said~~ she forgave them, and all the authors of her death, as freely as she hoped forgiveness from her Maker, and then once more made a solemn protestation of her innocence. Her eyes were then covered with a linen handkerchief; and she laid herself down without any fear or trepidation. Then reciting a psalm, and repeating a pious ejaculation, her head was severed from her body at two strokes, by the executioner. In contemplating the contentions of mankind, we find almost ever both sides culpable; Mary, who was stained with crimes that deserved punishment, was put to death by a princess who had no just pretensions to inflict punishment on her equal.

In the mean time Philip, king of Spain, who had long meditated the destruction of England, now began to put his

projects into execution. The perpetual object of his schemes was, to support the catholic religion, and exterminate the reformation. The revolt of his subjects in the Netherlands still more inflamed his resentment against the English, as they had encouraged and assisted the revolvers. He had, therefore, for some time, been making preparations to attack England by a powerful invasion; and now every part of his vast empire resounded with the noise of armaments, and every art was used to levy supplies. The marquis of Santa Croce, a sea-officer of great reputation and experience, was destined to command the fleet, which consisted of a hundred and thirty vessels of a greater size than any that had been hitherto seen in Europe. The duke of Parma was to conduct the land-forces, twenty thousand of whom were on board the fleet, and thirty-four thousand more were assembled in the Netherlands, ready to be transported into England; no doubt being entertained of this fleet's success, it was ostentatiously stiled the Invincible Armada.

Nothing could exceed the terror and consternation which all ranks of people felt in England upon news of this terrible Armada being under sail to invade them.—A fleet of not above thirty ships of war, and those very small in comparison, was all that was to oppose it by sea; and as for resisting by land, that was supposed to be impossible, as the Spanish army was composed of men well disciplined, and long inured to danger; but although the English fleet was much inferior in number and size of shipping to that of the enemy, yet it was much more manageable, the dexterity, and courage of the mariners being greatly superior. Lord Howard of Effingham, a man of great courage and capacity, as lord Admiral, took on him the command of the navy. Drake, Hawkins, and Forbisher, the most renowned seamen in Europe, served under him; while a small squadron, consisting of forty vessels, English and Flemish, commanded by lord Seymour, lay off Dunkirk, in order to intercept the duke of Parma. This was the preparation made by the English, while all the protestant powers of Europe regarded this enterprise as the critical event which was to decide for ever the fate of their religion.

In the mean time, while the Spanish Armada was preparing to sail, the admiral Santa Croce died, as likewise the vice-admiral Paliano; and the command of the expedition



was given to the duke de Medina Sidonia, a person utterly inexperienced in sea affairs. But some other accidents also contributed to their failure. Upon leaving the port of Lisbon, the Armada next day met with a violent tempest, which sunk some of the smallest of their shipping, and obliged the fleet to put back into harbour. After some time spent in refitting, they again put to sea; where they took a fisherman, who gave them the intelligence that the English fleet, hearing of the dispersion of the Armada in a storm, was retired back to Plymouth harbour, and most of the mariners discharged. From this false intelligence, the Spanish Admiral, instead of going directly to the coast of Flanders, to take in the troops stationed there, as he had been instructed, resolved to sail to Plymouth, and destroy the shipping laid up in that harbour. But Effingham, the English admiral, was very well prepared to receive them; he was just got out of port when he saw the Spanish Armada coming in full sail towards him, disposed in the form of a half moon, and stretching seven miles from one extremity to the other.

The English admiral, seconded by Drake, Hawkins, and Forbisher, now attacked the Armada at a distance, pouring in their broadsides with admirable dexterity. They did not choose to engage the enemy more closely, because they were greatly inferior in the number of ships, guns, and weight of metal: nor could they pretend to board such lofty ships without manifest disadvantage. However, two Spanish galleons were disabled and taken. As the Armada advanced up the channel, the English still followed and infested their rear; and their fleet continually increasing from different ports, they soon found themselves in a capacity to attack the Spanish fleet more nearly; and accordingly fell upon them, while they were taking shelter in the port of Calais. To increase their confusion, Howard took eight of his smaller ships, and filling them with combustible materials, sent them, as if they had been fire-ships, one after the other, into the midst of the enemy. The Spaniards taking them for what they seemed to be, immediately took flight in great disorder; while the English, profiting by their panic, took or destroyed about twelve of the enemy.

This was a fatal blow to Spain: the duke de Medina Sidonia being thus driven to the coast of Zealand, held a coun-

cil of war, in which it was resolved, that as their ammunition began to fail, as their ships had received great damage, and the duke of Parma had refused to venture his army under their protection, they should return to Spain by sailing round the Orkneys, as the winds were contrary to his passage directly back. Accordingly, they proceeded northward, and were followed by the English fleet as far as Flamborough-head, where they were terribly shattered by a storm. Seventeen of the ships, having five thousand men on board, were afterwards cast away on the western isles, and the coast of Ireland. Of the whole Armada, three and fifty ships only returned to Spain in a miserable condition; and the seamen as well as soldiers who remained, only served, by their accounts, to intimidate their countrymen from attempting to renew so dangerous an expedition.

From being invaded, the English in their turn, attacked the Spaniards. Of those who made the most signal figure in the depredations upon Spain, was the young earl of Essex, a nobleman of great bravery, generosity, and genius; and fitted, not only for the foremost ranks in war by his valour, but to conduct the intrigues of a court by his eloquence and address. In all the masques which were then performed, the earl and Elizabeth, were generally coupled as partners; and although she was almost sixty, and he not half so old, yet the world told her that she was young, and she was willing to think so. This young earl's interests in the queen's affections, as may naturally be supposed, promoted his interests in the state; and he conducted all things at his discretion. But young and inexperienced as he was, he at length began to fancy that the popularity he possessed, and the flatteries he received, were given to his merits, and not to his favour. In a debate before the queen, between him and Burleigh, about the choice of a governor for Ireland, he was so heated in the argument, that he entirely forgot the duties of civility. He turned his back on the queen in a contemptuous manner, which so provoked her resentment, that she instantly gave him a box on the ear. Instead of recollecting himself, and making the submissions due to her sex and station, he clapped his hand to his sword, and swore he would not bear such usage even from her father: but even this was overlooked by the queen, who reinstated him in her former favour, and her partiality seemed to have

acquired new force from that short interruption of anger and resentment. The death also of his rival, lord Burleigh, which happened shortly after, seemed to confirm his power. At that time the earl of Tyrone headed the rebellious natives of Ireland; who, not yet thoroughly brought into subjection to the English, took every opportunity to make incursions upon the more civilized inhabitants, and slew all they were able to overpower. To subdue these was an employment that Essex thought worthy of his ambition; nor were his enemies displeased at thus removing a man from court, where he obstructed all their private aims of preferment. But it ended in his ruin.

Instead of attacking the enemy in their grand retreat in Ulster, he led his forces into the province of Munster, where he only exhausted his strength, and lost his opportunity against a people who submitted at his approach, but, took up arms again when he retired. This issue of an enterprise, from which much was expected, provoked the queen most sensibly: and her anger was still more heightened by the peevish and impatient letters, which he daily wrote to her and the council. But her resentment against him was still more justly let loose, when she found, that without any permission demanded or obtained, he had returned from Ireland to make his complaints to herself in person.

A. D. Though Elizabeth was justly offended, yet he soon  
1600. won upon her temper to pardon him. He was ordered to continue a prisoner in his own house till the queen's further pleasure should be known, and it is probable that the discretion of a few months might have reinstated him in all his former employments; but the impetuosity of his character would not suffer him to wait for a slow redress of what he considered as wrongs, and the queen's refusing his request to continue him in the possession of a lucrative monopoly of sweet wines, which he had long enjoyed, spurred him to the most violent and guilty measures. Having long built on his great popularity, he began to hope, from the assistance of the giddy multitude, that revenge upon his enemies in the council, which he supposed was denied him from the throne. His greatest dependence was upon the professions of the citizens of London, whose schemes of religion and government he appeared entirely to approve; and while he gratified the puritans by

railing at the government of the church, he pleased the envious, by exposing the faults of those in power. Among other criminal projects, the result of blind rage and despair, it was resolved that sir Christopher Blount, one of his creatures, should, with a choice detachment, possess himself of the palace gates: that sir John Davis should seize the hall, Sir Charles Davers the guard-chamber, while Essex himself should rush in from the Mews, attended by a body of his partisans, into the queen's presence, entreat her to remove his and her enemies, to assemble a new parliament, and to correct the defects of the present administration.

While Essex was deliberating upon the manner he should proceed, he received a private note, by which he was warned to provide for his own safety. He now, therefore, consulted with his friends touching the emergency of their situation; they were destitute of arms and ammunition, while the guards at the palace were doubled, so that any attack there would be fruitless. While he and his confidants were in consultation, a person, probably employed by his enemies, came in as a messenger from the citizens, with tenders of friendship and assistance against all his adversaries. Wild as the project was of raising the city in the present terrible conjuncture, it was resolved on, but the execution of it was delayed till the day following.

Early in the morning of the next day, he was attended by his friends, the earls of Rutland and Southampton, the lords Sandes, Parker, and Mounteagle, with three hundred persons of distinction. The doors of Essex-house were immediately locked, to prevent all strangers from entering; and the earl now discovered his scheme for raising the city, more fully to all the conspirators. In the mean time, sir Walter Raleigh sending a message to sir Ferdinando Gorges, this officer had a conference with him in a boat on the Thames, and there discovered all their proceedings. The earl of Essex, who now saw that all was to be hazarded, resolved to leave his house, and to sally forth to make an insurrection in the city. But he had made a very wrong estimate in expecting that popularity alone would aid him in time of danger; he issued out with about two hundred followers, armed only with swords; and in his passage to the city he was joined by the earl of Bedford, and lord Cromwell. As he passed through the streets, he cried aloud, "For the

queen for the queen! a plot is laid for my life!" hoping to engage the populace to rise: but they had received orders from the mayor to keep within their houses, so that he was not joined by a single person. In this manner, attended by a few of his followers, the rest having privately retired, he made towards the river; and taking a boat, arrived once more at Essex-house, where he began to make preparations for his defence. But his case was too desperate for any remedy from valour; wherefore, after demanding in vain for hostages, and conditions from his besiegers, he surrendered at discretion, requesting only civil treatment, and a fair and impartial hearing.

Essex and Southampton were immediately carried to the archbishop's palace at Lambeth, from whence they were next day conveyed to the Tower, and tried by their peers on the nineteenth of February following. Little could be urged in their defence; their guilt was too flagrant, and could not meet an acquittal. Essex, after condemnation, was visited by that religious horror which seemed to attend him in all his disgraces. He was terrified by the remonstrances of his chaplain; and made a full confession of his conspiracy. It is said that he had strong hopes of pardon from the irresolution which the queen seemed to discover before she signed the warrant for his execution. She had given him formerly a ring, which she desired him to send her in any emergency of this nature, and that it should procure his safety and protection. This ring was actually sent her by the countess of Nottingham, who, being a concealed enemy to the unfortunate earl, never delivered it; while Elizabeth was secretly fired at his obstinacy in making no application for mercy and forgiveness. The fact is, she appeared herself as much an object of pity, as the unfortunate nobleman she was induced to condemn. She signed the warrant for his execution, she countermanded it, she again resolved on his death, and again felt a new return of tenderness. At last she gave her consent to the execution, and was never seen to enjoy one happy day more.

With the death of her favourite Essex, all Elizabeth's pleasures seemed to expire; she afterwards went through the business of the state merely from habit, but her distress was more than sufficient to destroy the remains of her constitution; and her end was now visibly seen to approach.

Her voice soon after left her; she fell into a lethargic slumber, which continued some hours, and she expired gently without a groan, in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign. Her character differed with her circumstances; in the beginning she was moderate and humble; towards the end of her reign, haughty and severe. Though she was possessed of excellent sense, yet she never had the discernment to discover that she wanted beauty; and to flatter her charms at the age of sixty-five was the surest road to her favour and esteem.

But whatever were her personal defects as a queen, she is ever to be remembered by the English with gratitude. It is true, indeed, that she carried her prerogative in parliament to its highest pitch; so that it was tacitly allowed in that assembly, that she was above all laws, and could make and unmake them at her pleasure; yet still she was so wise and good, as seldom to exert that power which she claimed, and to enforce few acts of her prerogative, which were not for the benefit of her people. It is true, also, that the English during her reign were put in possession of no new or splendid acquisitions: but commerce was daily growing up among them, and the people began to find that the theatre of their truest conquests was to be on the bosom of the ocean. A nation which hitherto had been the object of every invasion, and a prey to every plunderer, now asserted its strength in turn, and became terrible to its invaders. The successful voyages of the Spaniards and Portuguese began to excite their emulation; and they planned several expeditions for discovering a shorter passage to the East Indies. The famous sir Walter Raleigh, without any assistance from government, colonised New England, while internal commerce was making equal improvements; and many Flemings, persecuted in their native country, found, together with their arts, and industry, an easy asylum in England. Thus the whole island seemed as if roused from her long habits of barbarity; arts, commerce, and legislation began to acquire new strength every day; and such was the state of learning at that time, that some fix that period as the Augustan age of England. Sir Walter Raleigh and Hooker are considered as among the first improvers of our language. Spenser and Shakspeare are too well known as poets to be praised here: but of all mankind, Francis Bacon, lord Verulam, who flour-

rished in this reign, deserves, as a philosopher, the highest applause; his style is copious and correct, and his wit is only surpassed by his learning and penetration. If we look through history, and consider the rise of kingdoms, we shall scarce find an instance of a people becoming, in so short a time, wise, powerful, and happy. Liberty, it is true, still continued to fluctuate; Elizabeth knew her own power, and stretched it to the very verge of despotism; but now that commerce was introduced, liberty soon after followed; for there never was a nation perfectly commercial, that submitted long to slavery.

## CHAPTER XXVII.

JAMES I.—A. D. 1602—1625.

JAMES, the Sixth of Scotland, and the First of England, the son of Mary, came to the throne with the universal approbation of all orders of the state, as in his person was united every claim that either descent, bequest, or parliamentary sanction could confer. Yet in the very beginning of his reign a conspiracy was set on foot, which is said to have been begun by lord Grey, lord Cobham, and sir Walter Raleigh, who were all condemned to die, but had their sentence mitigated by the king. Cobham and Grey were pardoned after that they had laid their heads on the block. Raleigh was reprieved, but remained in confinement many years afterwards, and at last suffered for this offence, which was never proved.

Mild as this monarch was in toleration, here was a project contrived in the very beginning of his reign for the re-establishment of popery, which, were it not a fact known to all the world, could scarcely be credited by posterity. This was the gunpowder plot, than which a more horrid or terrible scheme never entered into the human heart. The Roman catholics had expected great favour and indulgence on the accession of James, both as a descendant of Mary, a rigid catholic, and also as having shown some partiality to that religion in his youth: but they soon discovered their mistake, and were at once surprised and enraged to find James on all occasions express his resolution of strictly ex-

executing the laws enacted against them, and in persevering in the conduct of his predecessor. This declaration determined them to destroy the king and both houses of parliament at a blow. The scheme was first broached by Robert Catesby, a gentleman of good parts and ancient family, who conceived that a train of gunpowder might be so placed under the parliament-house, as to blow up the king and all the members at once.

How horrid soever the contrivance might appear, yet every member seemed faithful and secret in the league; and about two months before the sitting of parliament, they hired a house in the name of Percy, adjoining to that in which the parliament was to assemble. Their first intention was to bore a way under the parliament-house, from that which they occupied, and they set themselves laboriously to the task; but when they had pierced the wall, which was three yards in thickness, on approaching the other side, they were surprised to find that the house was vaulted underneath, and that a magazine of coals was usually deposited there. From their disappointment on this account they were soon relieved by information, that the coals were then selling off, and that the vaults would be let to the highest bidder. They therefore seized the opportunity of hiring the place, and bought the remaining quantity of coals with which it was then stored, as if for their own use. The next thing done was to convey thither thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which had been purchased in Holland; and the whole was covered with the coals and with faggots brought for that purpose. Then the doors of the cellar were boldly thrown open, and every body admitted as if it contained nothing dangerous.

Confident of success, they now began to plan the remaining part of their project. The king, the queen, and prince Henry, the king's eldest son, were all expected to be present at the opening of the parliament. The king's second son, by reason of his tender age, would be absent, and it was resolved that Percy should seize or assassinate him. The princess Elizabeth, a child likewise, was kept at lord Harrington's house in Warwickshire; and sir Everard Digby was to seize her, and immediately proclaim her queen.

The day for the sitting of parliament now approached. Never was treason more secret, or ruin more apparently inevitable; the hour was expected with impatience, and the



conspirators gloried in their meditated guilt. The dreadful secret, though communicated to above twenty persons, had been religiously kept during the space of near a year and a half; yet when all the motives of pity, justice and safety, were too weak, a remorse of private friendship saved the kingdom.

Sir Henry Percy, one of the conspirators, conceived a design of saving the life of lord Mouteagle, his intimate friend and companion, who also was of the same persuasion with himself. About ten days before the meeting of parliament, this nobleman, upon his return to town, received a letter from a person unknown, and delivered by one who fled as soon as he had discharged his message. The letter was to this effect: "My lord, stay away from this parliament; for God and man have concurred to punish the wickedness of the times. And think not slightly of this advertisement, but retire yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety. For though there be no appearance of any stir, yet I say they will receive a terrible blow this parliament; and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be condemned, because it may do you good, and can do you no harm. For the danger is past as soon as you have burned the letter."

The contents of this mysterious letter surprised and puzzled the nobleman to whom it was addressed; and though inclined to think it a foolish attempt to affright and ridicule him, yet he judged it safest to carry it to lord Salisbury, secretary of state. Lord Salisbury too was inclined to give little attention to it, yet thought proper to lay it before the king in council, who came to town a few days after. None of the council were able to make any thing of it, although it appeared serious and alarming. In the universal agitation between doubt and apprehension, the king was the first who penetrated the meaning of this dark epistle. He concluded that some sudden danger was preparing by gunpowder; and it was thought advisable to inspect all the vaults below both houses of parliament. This care belonged to the earl of Suffolk, lord-chamberlain, who purposely de-

Nov. 5,  
1605.

laid the search till the day before the meeting of parliament. He remarked those great piles of faggots which lay in the vault under the house of peers, and seized a man preparing for the terrible enterprise,

dressed in a cloak and boots, and a dark-lantern in his hand. This was one Guy Fawkes, who had just disposed every part of the train for its taking fire the next morning, the matches and other combustibles being found in his pockets. The whole of the design was now discovered, but the atrociousness of his guilt, and the despair of pardon, inspiring him with resolution, he told the officers of justice, with an undaunted air, that had he blown them and himself up together he had been happy. Before the council he displayed the same intrepid firmness, mixed even with scorn and disdain, refusing to discover his associates, and showing no concern but for the failure of his enterprise. But his bold spirit was at length subdued; being confined to the Tower for two or three days, and the rack just shown him, his courage, fatigued with so long an effort, at last failed him, and he made a full discovery of all his accomplices.

Catesby, Percy, and the conspirators who were in London, hearing that Fawkes was arrested, fled with all speed to Warwickshire, where sir Everard Digby, relying on the success of the plot, was already in arms. But the country soon began to take the alarm, and wherever they turned they found a superior force ready to oppose them. In this exigence, beset on all sides, they resolved, to about the number of eighty persons, to fly no farther, but make a stand at a house in Warwickshire, to defend it to the last, and sell their lives as dearly as possible. But even this miserable consolation was denied them: a spark of fire happening to fall amongst some gunpowder that was laid to dry, it blew up, and so maimed the principal conspirators, that the survivors resolved to open the gate, and sally out against the multitude that surrounded the house. Some were instantly cut to pieces; Catesby, Percy, and Winter standing back to back, fought long and desperately, till in the end the two first fell covered with wounds, and Winter was taken alive. Those who survived the slaughter were tried and convicted; several fell by the hands of the executioner, and others experienced the king's mercy. The jesuits, Garnet and Oldcorn, who were privy to the plot, suffered with the rest; and notwithstanding the atrociousness of their treason, Garnet was considered by his party as a martyr, and miracles were said to have been wrought by his blood.

The sagacity with which the king first discovered the plot,

A. D. raised the opinion of his wisdom among the people ;  
1612. but the folly with which he gave himself up to his  
favourites quickly undeceived the nation. In the  
first rank of these stood Robert Carre, a youth of a good  
family in Scotland, who after having passed some time in his  
travels, arrived in London, at about twenty years of age.  
All his natural accomplishments consisted in a pleasing  
visage ; all his acquired abilities, in an easy and graceful  
demeanour. This youth was soon considered as the most  
rising man at court ; he was knighted, created viscount  
Rochester, honoured with the order of the garter, made a  
privy-counsellor, and, to raise him to the highest pitch of  
honour, he was at last created earl of Somerset. Some time  
after, however, being accused and convicted, from private  
motives, of poisoning sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower,  
he fell under the king's displeasure, and being driven from  
court, spent the remainder of his life in contempt and self-  
conviction.

But the king had not been so improvident as to part with  
one favourite until he had provided himself with another.  
This was George Villiers, a youth of one and twenty, a  
younger brother of a good family, who was returned about  
that time from his travels, and whom the enemies of  
Somerset had taken occasion to throw in the king's way,  
certain that his beauty and fashionable manners would do  
the rest. Accordingly he had been placed at a comedy full  
in the king's view, and immediately caught the monarch's  
affections to such a degree, that in the course of a few years  
he created him viscount Villiers, earl, marquis, and duke of  
Buckingham, knight of the garter, master of the horse, chief  
justice in Eyre, warden of the cinque-ports, master of the  
king's-bench office, steward of Westminster, constable of  
Windsor, and lord-high-admiral of England.

The universal murmur which these foolish attachments  
produced, was soon after heightened by an act of severity,  
which still continues as the blackest stain upon this mo-  
narch's memory. The brave and learned Raleigh had been  
confined in the Tower almost from the very beginning of  
James's accession, for a conspiracy which had never been  
proved against him ; and in that abode of wretchedness he  
wrote several valuable performances, which are still in the  
highest esteem. His long sufferings, and his ingenious

writings, had now turned the tide of popular opinion in his favour; and they who once detested the enemy of Essex, could not now help pitying the long captivity of this philosophical soldier. He himself still struggled for freedom; and perhaps it was with this desire that he spread the report of his having discovered a gold mine in Guiana, which was sufficient to enrich, not only the adventurers who should sieze it, but afford immense treasures to the nation. The king, either believing his assertions, or willing to subject him to further disgrace, granted him a commission to try his fortune in quest of these golden schemes: but still reserved his former sentence as a check upon his future behaviour.

Raleigh was not long in making preparation for this adventure, which, from the sanguine manner in which he carried it on, many believe he thought to be as promising as he described it. He bent his course to Guiana, and remaining himself at the mouth of the river Oroonoko, with five of the largest ships, he sent the rest up the stream, under the command of his son, and of captain Keymis, a person entirely devoted to his interest. But instead of a country abounding in gold, as the adventurers were taught to expect, they found the Spaniards had been warned of their approach, and were prepared in arms to receive them. Young Raleigh, to encourage his men, called out that, "That was the true mine," meaning the town of St. Thomas, which he was approaching; "and that none but fools looked for any other;" but just as he was speaking, he received a shot, of which he immediately expired. This was followed by another disappointment, for when the English took possession of the town, they found nothing in it of any value.

Raleigh, in this forlorn situation, found now that all his hopes were over; and saw his misfortunes still farther aggravated by the reproaches of those whom he had undertaken to command. Nothing could be more deplorable than his situation, particularly when he was told that he must be carried back to England to answer for his conduct to the king. It is pretended that he employed many artifices, first to engage them to attack the Spanish settlements at a time of peace; and, failing of that, to make his escape into France. But all those proving unsuccessful, he was delivered into the king's hands, and strictly examined, as well

as his fellow-adventurers, before the privy-council. Count Gondemar, the Spanish ambassador, made heavy complaints against the expedition; and the king declared that Raleigh had express orders to avoid all disputes and hostilities against the Spaniards. Wherefore, to give the court of Spain a particular instance of his attachment, he signed the warrant for his execution, not for the present offence, but for his former conspiracy. This great man died with the same fortitude that he had testified through life: he observed, as he felt the edge of the axe, that it was a sharp but a sure remedy for all evils; his harangue to the people was calm and eloquent; and he laid his head down on the block with the utmost indifference.

But there soon appeared very apparent reasons  
 A. D. for James's partiality to the court of Spain. This  
 1618. monarch had entertained an opinion, that in marrying his son Charles, the prince of Wales, any alliance below that of royalty would be unworthy of him; he therefore was obliged to seek, either in the court of France or Spain, a suitable match, and he was taught to think of the latter. Gondemar, who was ambassador from that court, made an offer of the second daughter of Spain to prince Charles: and gave hopes of an immense fortune which should attend the princess. However, this was a negotiation that was not likely soon to be ended; and five years elapsed without bringing the treaty to any kind of conclusion. This delay was very displeasing to the king, nor was it less disagreeable to prince Charles, who, bred up with ideas of romantic passion, was in love without ever seeing the object of his affections. A project now entered the head of Villiers, who had for some years ruled the king with absolute authority, that was fitter to be conceived by the knight of a romance, than by a minister and a statesman. It was projected that the prince should himself travel in disguise into Spain, and visit the princess of that country in person. Buckingham, who wanted to ingratiate himself with the prince, offered to be his companion; and the king gave his consent. Their adventures on this strange project would fill novels; and have actually been made the subject of many. Charles was the knight-errant, and Buckingham was the 'squire. The match however broke off, for what reasons historians do not assign; but if we may credit

the novelists of that time, the prince had already fixed his affections upon the daughter of Henry IV. of France, whom he married shortly after.

It may easily be supposed that these mismanagements were seen and felt by the people. The house of commons was by this time become quite unmanageable; the prodigality of James to his favourites had made his necessities so many, that he was contented to sell the different branches of his prerogative to the commons, one after the other, to procure supplies. In proportion as they perceived his wants, they found out new grievances; and every grant of money was sure to come with a petition for redress. The struggles between him and his parliament had been growing more and more violent every session; and the very last advanced their pretensions to such a degree, that he began to take the alarm; but the evils fell upon the successor, which the weakness of this monarch had created.

These domestic troubles were attended by others still more important in Germany; and which produced in the end the most dangerous effects. The king's eldest daughter had been married to Frederick, the elector-palatine of Germany: and this prince revolting against the emperor Ferdinand the Second, was defeated in a decisive battle, and obliged to take refuge in Holland. His affinity to the English crown, his misfortunes, but particularly the protestant religion, for which he had contended, were strong motives for the people of England to wish well to his cause; and frequent addresses were sent from the commons to spur up James to take a part in the German contest, and to replace the exiled prince upon

the throne of his ancestors. James at first attempted  
 A. D. 1620. to ward off the misfortunes of his son-in-law by negotiations; but these proving utterly ineffectual, it was resolved at last to rescue the palatinate from the emperor by force of arms. Accordingly, war was declared against Spain and the emperor; six thousand men, were sent over into Holland to assist prince Maurice in his schemes against those powers; the people were everywhere elated at the courage of their king, and were satisfied with any war against the papists. This army was followed by another, consisting of twelve thousand men, commanded by count Mansfeldt; and the court of France promised its assistance. But the English were disappointed in all their

views: the troops being embarked at Dover, upon sailing to Calais, they found no orders for their admission. After waiting in vain for some time, they were obliged to sail towards Zealand, where no proper measures were yet concerted for their disembarkation. Meanwhile, a pestilential distemper crept in among the forces, so long cooped up in narrow vessels; half the army died while on board, and the other half, weakened by sickness, appeared too small a body to march into the palatinate; and thus ended this ill-concerted and fruitless expedition.

Whether this misfortune had any effect upon James's constitution is uncertain; but he was soon after seized with a tertian ague, which when his courtiers assured him from the proverb that it was health for a king, he replied that the proverb was meant for a young king. After some fits he found himself extremely weakened, and sent for the prince, whom he exhorted to persevere in the protestant religion: then preparing with decency and courage to meet his end, he expired, after a reign over England of twenty-two years, and in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

## CHAPTER XXVIII.

CHARLES I.—A. D. 1625—1648.

Few princes ever ascended a throne with more apparent advantages than Charles; and none ever encountered more real difficulties. Indeed, he undertook the reins of government with a fixed persuasion that his popularity was sufficient to carry every measure. He had been loaded with a treaty for defending the prince Palatine, his brother-in-law, in the late reign, and the war declared for that purpose was to be carried on with vigour in this. But war was more easily declared than supplies granted. After some reluctance the commons voted him two subsidies: a sum far from being sufficient to support him in his intended equipment. To supply the want of parliamentary aids, Charles had recourse to some of the ancient methods of extortion, practised by sovereigns when in necessitous circumstances. That kind of tax called a benevolence was ordered to be exacted,

and privy seals were issued accordingly. With this the people were obliged, though reluctantly, to comply ; as it was in fact authorised by many precedents.

After an ineffectual expedition to Cadiz, another attempt was made to obtain supplies in a more regular and constitutional manner than before. Another parliament was accordingly called ; and though some steps were taken to exclude the more popular leaders of the last house of commons, by nominating them as sheriffs of counties, yet the present parliament seemed more refractory than the former. When the king laid before the house his necessities, and asked for a supply, they voted him only three subsidies, which amounted to about an hundred and sixty thousand pounds ; a sum no way adequate. In order, therefore, to gain a sufficient supply, a commission was openly granted to compound with the catholics, and agree for a dispensation of the penal laws against them. He borrowed a sum of money from the nobility, whose contributions came in but slowly. But the greatest stretch of his power was in the levying of ship-money. In order to equip a fleet, each of the maritime towns was required, with the assistance of the adjacent counties, to arm as many vessels as were appointed them. The city of London was rated at twenty ships. This was the commencement of a tax, which afterwards was carried to violent lengths.

War being soon after declared against France, a fleet was sent out, under the command of Buckingham, to relieve Rochelle, a maritime town in that kingdom, that had long enjoyed its privileges independent of the French king ; but that had for some years embraced the reformed religion, and now was besieged with a formidable army. The duke's measures, however, were so ill concerted, that the inhabitants of the city shut their gates, and refused to admit allies of whose coming they were not previously informed. Instead of attacking the island of Oleron, which was fertile and defenceless, he bent his course to the isle of Rhé, which was garrisoned and well fortified. He attempted there to starve out the garrison of St. Martin's castle, which was plentifully supplied with provisions by sea. By that time the French had landed their forces privately at another part of the island ; so that Buckingham was at last obliged to retreat, but with such precipitation, that two-thirds of his army were



cut in pieces before he could re-embark, though he was the last man of the whole army who quitted the shore. This proof of his personal courage, however, was but small consolation for the disgrace which his country has sustained.

The contest between the king and the commons every day grew warmer. The officers of the custom-house were summoned before the commons, to give an account by what authority they seized the goods of the merchants, who had refused to pay the duty of tonnage and poundage, which they alleged was levied without the sanction of a law. The barons of the Exchequer were questioned concerning their decrees on that head; and the sheriff of London was committed to the Tower for his activity in supporting the custom-house officers. The commons went still farther, by a resolution to examine into religious grievances, and a new spirit of intolerance began to appear. The king,

A. D. 1629. therefore, resolved to dissolve a parliament which he found himself unable to manage; and Sir John Finch, the speaker, just as the question concerning tonnage and poundage was going to be put, rose up, and informed the house that he had a command from the king to adjourn.

The house upon this was in an uproar; the speaker was pushed back into his chair, and forcibly held in it by Hollis and Valentine, till a short remonstrance was framed, and passed by acclamation rather than vote. In this hasty production, Papists, and Arminians were declared capital enemies to the state. Tonnage and poundage were condemned as contrary to law; and not only those who raised that duty, but those who paid it, were considered as guilty of capital crimes. In consequence of this violent procedure, sir Miles Hobart, sir Peter Hayman, Selden, Coriton, Long, and Strode, were, by the king's order, committed to prison, under pretence of sedition. But the same temerity that impelled Charles to imprison them, induced him to grant them a release. Sir John Elliot, Hollis, and Valentine, were summoned before the King's-Bench; but they refusing to appear before an inferior tribunal, for faults committed in a superior, they were condemned to be imprisoned during the king's pleasure, to pay a fine, the two former a thousand pounds each, and the latter of five hundred, and to find sureties for their good behaviour. The members triumphed

in their sufferings, while they had the whole kingdom as spectators and applauders of their fortitude.

In the mean time, while the king was thus distressed by the obstinacy of the commons, he felt a much severer blow by the death of his favourite, the duke of Buckingham, who fell a sacrifice to his unpopularity. It had been resolved once more to undertake the raising of the siege of Rochelle: and the earl of Denbigh, brother-in-law to Buckingham, was sent thither, but returned without effecting any thing. In order to repair this disgrace, the duke of Buckingham went in person to Portsmouth to hurry on another expedition, and to punish such as had endeavoured to defraud the crown of the legal assessments. In the general discontent that prevailed against this nobleman, it was daily expected that some severe measures would be resolved on; and he was stigmatized as the tyrant and the betrayer of his country. There was one Felton, who caught the general contagion; an Irishman of a good family, who had served under the duke as lieutenant, but had resigned, on being refused his rank on the death of his captain, who had been killed at the isle of Rhé. This man was naturally melancholy, courageous, and enthusiastic; he felt for his country, as if labouring under a calamity which he thought it in the power of his single arm to remove. He therefore resolved to kill the duke, and thus revenge his own private injuries, while he did service also to God and man. Animated in this manner with gloomy zeal and mistaken patriotism, he travelled down to Portsmouth alone, and entered the town while the duke was surrounded by his levee, and giving out the necessary orders for embarkation. While he was speaking to one of his colonels, Felton struck him over an officer's shoulder in the breast with his knife. The duke had only time to say, "The villain has killed me," when he fell at the colonel's feet, and instantly expired. No one had seen the blow, nor the person who gave it; but a hat being picked up, on the inside of which was sewed a paper, containing four or five lines of the remonstrance of the commons against the duke, it was concluded that this hat must belong to the assassin; and while they were employed in conjectures whose it should be, a man without a hat was seen walking very composedly before the door, and was heard to cry out, I am he! He disdained denying a murder in which he gloried; and averred, that he

cut in pieces before he could re-embark, though he was the last man of the whole army who quitted the shore. This proof of his personal courage, however, was but a small consolation for the disgrace which his country had sustained.

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looked upon the duke as an enemy to his country, and as such deserving to suffer. When asked at whose instigation he had perpetrated that horrid deed? he answered, that they need not trouble themselves in that inquiry; that his conscience was his only prompter, and that no man on earth could dispose him to act against its dictates. He suffered with the same degree of constancy to the last; nor were there many wanting who admired not only his fortitude, but the action for which he suffered.

The king's first measure, now being left without a minister and a parliament, was a prudent one. He made peace A. D. with the two crowns against whom he had hitherto 1629. waged war, which had been entered upon without necessity, and conducted without glory. Being freed from these embarrassments, he bent his whole attention to the management of the internal policy of the kingdom, and took two men as his associates in this task, who still acted an under part to himself. These were sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards created earl of Strafford; and Laud, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury. Laud, during this long interval, ruled the church; the king and Strafford undertook to manage the temporal interests of the nation; and a declaration was dispersed, implying, that during this reign no more parliaments would be summoned.

The tonnage and poundage were continued to be levied by royal authority alone; custom-house officers received orders from the council to enter any house whatever, in search of suspected goods; compositions were openly made with papists; and their religion was become a regular part of the revenue. The High-commission court of Star-chamber exercised its power, independent of any law, upon several bold innovators in liberty, who only gloried in their sufferings, and contributed to render government odious and contemptible. Prynne, a barrister of Lincoln's-Inn, Burton, a divine, and Bastwick, a physician, were tried before this tribunal for schismatical libels, in which they attacked, with great severity and intemperate zeal, the ceremonies of the church of England. They were condemned to be pilloried, to lose their ears, and to pay five thousand pounds to the king.

In the mean time the levying of *ship-money*, as it was called, was universally complained of as a national grievance.

ance. This was a tax which had in former reigns, been levied without the consent of parliament; but then the exigency of the state demanded such a supply. John Hampden, a gentleman of fortune in Buckinghamshire, refused to comply with the tax, and resolved to bring it to a legal determination. He had been rated at twenty shillings for his estate, which he refused to pay; and the case was argued twelve days in the Exchequer chamber, before all the judges of England. The nation regarded, with the utmost anxiety, the result of a trial that was to fix the limits of the king's power. All the judges, four only excepted, gave sentence in favour of the crown; while Hampden, who lost his cause, was recompensed by the applauses of the people.

The discontent and opposition which the king met with in maintaining episcopacy among his English subjects did not hinder him from attempting to introduce it among those of Scotland, where it was generally hateful. Having published an order for reading the liturgy in the principal church in Edinburgh, the people received it with clamours and imprecations. The seditious disposition in that kingdom, which had hitherto been kept within bounds, was now too furious for restraint, the insurrection became general over all the country, and the Scots flew to arms with great animosity.

Yet still the king could not think of desisting from his design; and so prepossessed was he in favour of royal right, that he thought the very name of king, when forcibly urged, would induce them to return to their duty. Instead therefore of fighting with his opponents, he entered upon a treaty with them; so that a suspension of arms was soon agreed upon, and a treaty of peace concluded, which neither side intended to observe; and then both parties agreed to disband their forces. After much altercation, and many treaties signed and broken, both parties once more had recourse to arms; and war being thus resolved on, the king took every method as before for raising money to support it. Ship-money was levied as usual; some other arbitrary taxes were exacted from the reluctant people with great severity; but these were far from being sufficient; and there now remained only the long-neglected method of a parliamentary supply.

The new house of commons, however, could not be induced to treat the Scots, who were of the same principles with

themselves, and contending against the same ceremonies, as enemies to the state. The king, therefore, could reap no other fruits from this assembly than murmurings and complaints. Every method he had taken to supply himself with money was declared an abuse, and a breach of the constitution. The king, therefore, once more dissolved the parliament, to try more feasible methods of removing his necessities.

His necessities, however, continuing, that parliament was called, which did not cease sitting till they overturned the constitution. Without any interval, they entered upon business; and by unanimous consent they struck a blow that might be regarded as decisive. Instead of granting the demanded subsidies, they impeached the earl of Strafford, the king's first minister, and had him arraigned before the house of peers for high-treason. After a long and eloquent speech, delivered without premeditation, in which he confuted all the accusations of his enemies, he was found guilty by both houses of parliament; and nothing remained but for the king to give his consent to the bill of attainder. Charles, who loved Strafford tenderly, hesitated, and seemed reluctant, trying every expedient to put off so dreadful a duty, as that of signing the warrant for his execution. While he continued in this agitation of mind, not knowing how to act, his doubts were at last silenced by an act of heroic bravery in the condemned lord. He received a letter from that unfortunate nobleman, desiring that his life might be made the sacrifice of a mutual reconciliation between the king and his people; adding, that he was prepared to die, and to a willing mind there could be no injury. This instance of noble generosity was but ill repaid by his master, who complied with his request. He consented to the signing the fatal bill by commission; Strafford was beheaded on Tower-hill, behaving with all that composed dignity of resolution that was expected from his character. The parliament fell next with great justice on two courts, which had been erected under arbitrary kings, and had seldom been employed but in cases of necessity, the High-commission court, and the court of Star-chamber. A bill unanimously passed the houses to abolish both; and in them to annihilate the principal and most dangerous articles in the king's prerogative.

In the midst of these troubles, the papists of Ireland fan-

cied they found a convenient opportunity of throwing off the English yoke, and accordingly resolved to cut off all the protestants in the kingdom at a stroke; so that neither age, sex, nor condition, received any pity. Forty thousand protestants were supposed to have been killed in this massacre. In such indiscriminate slaughter, neither former benefits, nor alliances, nor authority, were any protection: numberless were the instances of friends murdering their intimates, relations their kinsmen, and servants their masters. In vain did flight save from the first assault; destruction, that had an extensive spread, met the haunted victims at every turn. The king took all the precautions in his power to show his utter detestation of those bloody proceedings; and being sensible of his own inability to suppress the rebellion, had once more recourse to his English parliament, and craved their assistance for a supply. But here he found no hopes of assistance: many insinuations were thrown out, that he had himself fomented this rebellion, and no money could be spared for the extinction of distant dangers, when they pretended that the kingdom was threatened with greater at home.

It was now that the republican spirit began to appear, without any disguise, in the present parliament, and that party, instead of attacking the faults of the king, resolved to destroy monarchy. The leaders of the opposition began their operations by a resolution to attack episcopacy, which was one of the strongest bulwarks of the royal power.

A. D. 1641. They accused thirteen bishops of high treason, for enacting canons without the consent of parliament; and endeavoured to prevail upon the house of peers to exclude all the prelates from their seats and votes in that august assembly. The bishops saw the storm that was gathering against them, and probably to avert its effects, they resolved to attend their duty in the house of lords no longer.

This was a fatal blow to the royal interest: but it soon felt a much greater from the king's own imprudence. Charles had long suppressed his resentment, and only strove to satisfy the commons by the greatness of his concessions; but finding that all his compliance had but increased their demands, he could no longer retain it. He gave orders to Herbert, his attorney-general, to enter an accusation of high treason



in the house of peers against lord Kimbolton, one of the most popular men of his party, together with five commoners, sir Arthur Haslerig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym, and Strode. The articles were, that they had traitorously endeavoured to subvert the fundamental laws and government of the kingdom: to deprive the king of his regal power; and to impose on his subjects an arbitrary and tyrannical authority. Men had scarce leisure to wonder at the precipitancy and imprudence of this impeachment, when they were astonished by another measure still more rash and unsupported. The next day the king himself was seen to enter the house of commons alone, advancing through the hall, while all the members stood up to receive him. The speaker withdrew from his chair, and the king took possession of it. Having seated himself and looked round him for some time, he told the house that he was sorry for the occasion that forced him thither, that he was come in person, to seize the members, whom he had accused of high treason, seeing they would not deliver them up to his serjeant at arms. He then sat for some time to see if the accused were present; but they had escaped a few minutes before his entry. Thus disappointed, perplexed, and not knowing on whom to rely, he next proceeded, amidst the clamours of the populace, who continued to cry out, "Privilege! privilege!" to the common-council of the city, and made his complaint to them. The common-council only answered his complaints with a contemptuous silence; and on his return, one of the populace more insolent than the rest, cried out, "To your tents, O Israel!" a watchword among the Jews when they intended to abandon their princes.

Being returned to Windsor, he began to reflect on the rashness of his former proceedings; and now, too late, resolved to make some atonement. He therefore wrote to the parliament, informing them, that he desisted from his former proceedings against the accused members: and assured them, that upon all occasions, he would be as careful of their privileges as of his life or his crown. Thus his former violence had rendered him hateful to his commons, and his present submission had now rendered him contemptible.

The power of appointing generals and levying armies was still a remaining prerogative of the crown. The commons having, therefore, first magnified their terrors of popery,

which, perhaps, they actually dreaded, they proceeded to petition that the Tower might be put into their hands, and that Hull, Portsmouth, and the fleet, should be intrusted to persons of their choosing. These were requests, the complying with which levelled all that remained of the ancient constitution; however, such was the necessity of the times, that they were at first contested, and then granted. At last, every compliance only increasing the avidity of making fresh demands, the commons desired to have a militia, raised and governed by such officers and commanders as they should nominate, under pretext of securing them from the Irish papists, of whom they were in great apprehensions.

It was here that Charles first ventured to put a stop to his concessions; and being urged to give up the command of the army for an appointed time, he was so exasperated, that he exclaimed, "No! not for an hour." This peremptory refusal broke off all farther treaty; and both sides were now resolved to have recourse to arms.

No period since England began could show so many instances of courage, abilities, and virtue as the 1642. present fatal opposition called forth into exertion. Now was the time when talents of every kind, unchecked by authority, were called from the lower ranks of life to dispute for power and pre-eminence. Manifestoes on the one side and the other were now dispersed throughout the whole kingdom; and the people were universally divided between two factions, distinguished by the names of Cavaliers and Roundheads. The king's forces appeared in a very low condition; besides the train-bands of the country, raised by sir John Digby, the sheriff, he had not got together three hundred infantry. His cavalry, which composed his chief strength, exceeded not eight hundred, and were very ill provided with arms. However, he was soon gradually reinforced from all quarters; but not being then in a condition to face his enemies, he thought it prudent to retire by slow marches to Derby, and thence to Shrewsbury, in order to countenance the levies which his friends were making in those quarters.

In the mean time the parliament were not remiss in preparations on their side. They had a magazine of arms at Hull, and sir John Hotham was appointed governor of that place by parliament. The forces also, which had been every-

where raised on pretence of the service of Ireland, were now more openly enlisted by the parliament for their own purposes, and the command given to the earl of Essex, a bold man, who rather desired to see monarchy abridged, than totally destroyed; and in London, no less than four thousand men were enlisted in one day.

Edge-hill was the first place where the two armies were put in array against each other, and the country drenched in civil slaughter. It was a dreadful sight, to see above thirty thousand of the bravest men in the world, instead of employing their courage abroad, turning it against each other, while the dearest friends, and nearest kinsmen, embraced opposite sides, and prepared to bury their private regards in factious hatred. After an engagement of some hours, animosity seemed to be wearied out, and both sides separated with equal loss. Five thousand men are said to have been found dead on the field of battle.

It would be tedious and no way instructive to enter into marchings and counter-marchings of these undisciplined and ill-conducted armies; war was a new trade to the English, as they had not seen an hostile engagement in the island for near a century before. The queen came to reinforce the royal party; she had brought soldiers and ammunition from Holland, and immediately departed to furnish more. But the parliament who knew its own consequence and strength, was no way discouraged. Their demands seemed to increase in proportion to their losses; and as they were repressed in the field, they grew more haughty in the cabinet. Such governors as gave up their fortresses to the king, were attainted of high treason. It was in vain for the king to send proposals after any success; this only raised their pride and their animosity. But though this desire in the king to make peace with his subjects was the highest encomium on his humanity, yet his long negotiations, one of which he carried on at Oxford, were faulty as a warrior. He wasted that time in altercation and treaty, which he should have employed in vigorous exertions in the field.

However, his first campaign, upon the whole, wore a favourable aspect. One victory followed after another; Cornwall was reduced to peace and obedience under the king; a victory was gained over the parliamentarians at Stratton-hill, in Devonshire; another at Roundway-down about two

miles from the Devizes ; and still a greater at Chalgrave-field. Bristol was besieged and taken, and Gloucester was invested ; the battle of Newbury was favourable to the royal cause, and great hopes of success were formed from an army in the North, raised by the marquis of Newcastle.

In this first campaign the two bravest and greatest men of their respective parties were killed : John Hampden, and Lucius Cary, Lord Falkland. The first in a skirmish against prince Rupert, the other in the battle of Newbury, which followed shortly after. Hampden, whom we have seen in the beginning of these troubles refuse to pay the ship-money, gained by his inflexible integrity, the esteem even of his enemies. To these he added affability in conversation, temper, art, eloquence in debate, and penetration in council.

Falkland was still a greater loss, and a greater character. He added to Hampden's severe principles, a politeness and elegance, but then beginning to be known in England. He had boldly withstood the king's pretensions, while he saw him making a bad use of his power ; but when he perceived the design of the parliament, to overturn the religion and the constitution of his country, he steadfastly attached himself to the crown. From the beginning of the civil war, his natural cheerfulness and vivacity forsook him ; he became melancholy, sad, pale, and negligent of his person, and seemed to wish for death. His usual cry among his friends, after a deep silence, and frequent sighs, was, " Peace ! Peace !" He said upon the morning of the engagement, that he was weary of the times, and should leave them before night. He was shot by a musket-ball in the belly ; and his body was next morning found among a heap of slain. His writings, his elegance, his justice, and his courage, deserved such a death of glory ; and they found it.

The king, that he might make preparations during the winter for the ensuing campaign, and to oppose the designs of the Westminster parliament, called one at Oxford ; and this was the first time that England saw two parliaments sitting at the same time. His house of peers was pretty full ; his house of commons consisted of about a hundred and forty, which amounted to not above half of the other house of commons. From this shadow of a parliament he received some supplies, after which it was prorogued, and never after assembled.

In the mean time the republican parliament passed an ordinance, commanding all the inhabitants of London and its neighbourhood to retrench a meal a week, and to pay the value of it for the support of the public cause. But what was much more effectual, the Scots, who considered their claims as similar, led a strong body to their assistance. They levied an army of fourteen thousand men in the East, under the earl of Manchester; they had an army of ten thousand men under Essex; and another of nearly the same force under sir William Waller. These were superior to any force the king could bring into the field; and were well appointed with ammunition, provisions, and pay.

A. D. 1644. Hostilities, which even during the winter season had never been wholly discontinued, were renewed in the spring with their usual fury, and served to desolate the kingdom, without deciding victory. Each county joined that side to which it was addicted from motives of conviction, interest, or fear, though some observed a perfect neutrality. Several frequently petitioned for peace; and all the wise and good were in earnest in the cry. What particularly deserves remark, was an attempt of the women of London, who, to the number of two or three thousand, went in a body to the house of commons, earnestly demanding a peace. "Give us those traitors," said they, "who are against a peace; give them, that we may tear them in pieces." The guards found some difficulty in quelling this insurrection, and one or two women lost their lives in the fray.

The battle of Marston-moor was the beginning of the king's misfortunes and disgrace. The Scotch and parliamentary army had joined, and were besieging York; when prince Rupert, joined by the marquis of Newcastle, determined to raise the siege. Both sides drew up on Marston-moor to the number of fifty thousand, and the victory seemed long undecided between them. Rupert who commanded the right wing of the royalists, was opposed by Oliver Cromwell, who now first came into notice, at the head of a body of troops whom he had taken care to levy and discipline. Cromwell was victorious; he pushed his opponents off the field, followed the vanquished, returned to a second engagement, and a second victory; the prince's whole train of artillery was taken, and the royalists never after recovered the blow.

William Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, was sent to the Tower in the beginning of this reign. He was now brought to his trial, condemned, and executed. The liturgy was by a public act abolished the day he died, as if he had been the only obstacle to its former removal. The church of England was, in all respects, brought to a conformity to the puritanical establishment; and the citizens of London, and the Scotch army, gave public thanks for so happy an alteration.

The battle which decided the fate of Charles, June 14, was fought at Naseby, a village in Northamptonshire. 1645.

The main body of the royal army was commanded by lord Astley, prince Rupert led the right wing, sir Marmaduke Langdale the left, and the king himself headed the body of reserve. On the opposite side Fairfax and Skippon commanded the main body; Cromwell led on the right wing, and Ireton his son-in-law, the left. Prince Rupert attacked the left wing, with his usual impetuosity and success; they were broke and pursued as far as the village; but he lost time in attempting to make himself master of their artillery. Cromwell, in the mean time, was equally successful on his side, and broke through the enemy's horse after a very obstinate resistance. While these were thus engaged, the infantry on both sides maintained the conflict with equal ardour; but in spite of the efforts of Fairfax and Skippon, their battalions began to give way. At this critical period, Cromwell returned with his victorious forces, and charged the king's infantry in flank with such vigour, that a total rout began to ensue. By this time prince Rupert had rejoined the king, and the small body of reserve; but his troops though victorious, could not be brought to a second charge. The king perceiving the battle wholly lost, was obliged to abandon the field to his enemies, who took all his cannon, baggage, and above five thousand prisoners.

The battle of Naseby put the parliamentarians in possession of almost all the strong cities of the kingdom, Bristol, Bridgewater, Chester, Sherborne, and Bath. Exeter was besieged; and all the king's troops in the western counties being entirely dispersed, Fairfax pressed the place, and it surrendered at discretion. The king thus surrounded, harassed on every side, retreated to Oxford, that in all conditions of his fortune had held steady to his cause, and there he resolved to offer new terms to his incensed pursuers.

In the mean time, Fairfax was approaching with a powerful and victorious army, and was taking the proper measures for laying siege to Oxford, which promised an easy surrender. To be taken captive, and led in triumph by his insolent subjects, was what Charles justly abhorred; and every insult and violence was to be dreaded from the soldiery. In this desperate extremity, he took the fatal resolution of giving himself up to the Scotch army, who had never testified implacable animosity against him; but he too soon found, that, instead of treating him as a king, they insulted him as a captive.

The English parliament being informed of the king's captivity, immediately entered into a treaty with the Scots about delivering up their prisoner. They agreed, that upon payment of four hundred thousand pounds they would deliver up the king to his enemies, and this was cheerfully complied with. An action so atrocious may be palliated, but can never be defended; they returned home laden with plunder, and the reproaches of all good men.

The civil war was now over; the king had absolved his followers from their allegiance, and the parliament had now no enemy to fear, except those very troops by which they had extended their overgrown authority. But in proportion as the terror of the king's power diminished, the divisions between the members which composed the parliament, became more apparent. The majority in the house were of the presbyterian sect, who were for having clergy; but the majority of the army were staunch independents, who admitted of no clergy, but thought that every man had a right to instruct his fellows. At the head of this sect was Cromwell, who secretly directed its operations, and invigorated all their measures.

Oliver Cromwell, whose talents now began to appear in full lustre, was the son of a private gentleman in Huntingdon; but being the son of a second brother, he inherited a very small paternal fortune. From accident or intrigue, he was chosen member for the town of Cambridge, in the long parliament; but he seemed at first to possess no talents for oratory, his person being ungraceful, his dress slovenly, his elocution homely, tedious, obscure, and embarrassed. He made up, however, by zeal and perseverance, what he wanted in natural powers; and being endowed with unshaken intre-

pidity, much dissimulation, and a thorough conviction of the rectitude of his cause, he rose, through the gradations of preferment, to the post of lieutenant-general under Fairfax ; but, in reality, possessing the supreme command over the whole army.

The army now began to consider themselves as a body distinct from the commonwealth ; and complained that they had secured the general tranquillity, while they were deprived of the privileges of Englishmen : a military parliament was therefore formed, composed of the officers and common soldiers of each regiment. The principal officers formed a council to represent the body of peers ; the soldiers elected two men out of each company to represent the house of commons, and these were called the agitators of the army. Cromwell took care to be one of the number, and thus contrived an easy underhand method of conducting and promoting the sedition of the army.

The unhappy king, in the mean time, continued a prisoner at Holmby-castle ; and as his countenance might add some authority to that side who should obtain it, Cromwell, who secretly conducted all the measures of the army, while he apparently exclaimed against their violence, resolved to seize the king's person. Accordingly a party of five hundred horse appearing at Holmby-castle, under the command of one Joyce, conducted the king to the army, who were hastening to their rendezvous at Triplo-heath, near Cambridge. The next day Cromwell arrived among them, where he was received with acclamations of joy, and was instantly invested with the supreme command.

The house of commons was now divided into parties, as usual, one party opposing, but the majority, with the two speakers at their head, encouraging the army. In such an universal confusion, it is not to be expected that any thing less than a separation of the parties could take place ; and accordingly the two speakers, with sixty-two members, secretly retired from the house, and threw themselves under the protection of the army that was then at Hounslow-heath. They were received with shouts and acclamations, their integrity was extolled, and the whole body of the soldiery, a formidable force of twenty thousand men, now moved forward to reinstate them in their former seats and stations.

In the mean time, that part of the house that was left



behind, resolved to act with vigour, and resist the encroachments of the army. They chose new speakers, they gave orders for enlisting troops, they ordered the trainbands to man the lines, and the whole city boldly resolved to resist the invasion. But this resolution only held while the enemy was thought at a distance; for when the formidable force of Cromwell appeared, all was obedience and submission; the gates were opened to the general, who attended the two speakers and the rest of the members peaceably to their habitations. The eleven impeached members, being accused as causers of the tumult, were expelled, and most of them retired to the continent. The mayor, sheriff, and three aldermen, were sent to the Tower; several citizens and officers of militia were committed to prison, and the lines about the city were levelled to the ground. The command of the Tower was given to Fairfax, the general; and the parliament ordered him their hearty thanks for having disobeyed their commands.

It now only remained to dispose of the king, who had been sent by the army a prisoner to Hampton-court; from whence he attempted to escape, but was once more made prisoner in the Isle of Wight, and confined in Carisbrook-castle. He still, however, continued to negotiate with the parliament for settling the unspeakable calamities of the kingdom, and the parliament saw no other method of destroying the military power, but to depress it by the kingly. Frequent proposals for an accommodation passed between the captive king and the commons. But it was now too late: for the rebellious army, crowned with success, and, sensible of their power, with furious remonstrances, began to demand vengeance on the king. At the same time they advanced to Windsor: and sending an officer to seize the king's person, where he was lately sent under confinement, they conveyed him to Hurst-castle, in Hampshire, opposite the Isle of Wight. The commons, however, though destitute of all hopes of prevailing, had still courage to resist, and attempted, in the face of the whole army, to close their treaty with their king. But the next day colonel Pride, at the head of two regiments, blockaded the house, and seized in the passage forty-one members of the presbyterian party, and sent them to a low room belonging to the house, that passed by the denomination of Hell. Above a hundred and sixty members

more were excluded ; and none were allowed to enter but the most furious and determined of the Independents, in all not exceeding sixty. This atrocious invasion of the parliamentary rights, commonly passed by the name of Pride's Purge, and the remaining members, were called the Rump. These soon voted, that the transactions of the house a few days before were entirely illegal, and that their general's conduct was just and necessary. A committee was appointed to bring in a charge against the king ; and a vote passed, declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his parliament. A High Court of Justice was accordingly appointed to try his majesty for this new-invented treason.

Colonel Harrison, the son of a butcher, was commanded to conduct the king from Hust-castle to Windsor, and from thence to London. His afflicted subjects, who ran to have a sight of their sovereign, were greatly affected at the change that appeared in his face and person. He had allowed his beard to grow ; his hair was become venerably grey, rather by the pressure of anxiety than the hand of time ; while his apparel bore the marks of misfortune and decay. Thus he stood a solitary figure of majesty in distress, which even his adversaries could not behold without reverence and compassion. He had been long attended only by an old decrepit servant, whose name was sir Philip Warwick, who could only deplore his master's fate without being able to revenge his cause. All the exterior symbols of sovereignty were now withdrawn ; and his new attendants had orders to serve him without ceremony. The duke of Hamilton, who was reserved for the same punishment with his master, having leave to take a last farewell as he departed from Windsor, threw himself at the king's feet, crying out, " My dear Master." The unhappy monarch raised him up, and embracing him tenderly, replied, while the tears ran down his cheeks, " I have, indeed been a dear master to you." These were severe distresses ; however, he could not be persuaded that his adversaries would bring him to a formal trial ; but he every moment expected to be despatched by private assassination.

From the sixth to the twentieth of January was spent in making preparations for his extraordinary trial. The Court of Justice consisted of a hundred and thirty-three persons, named by the commons ; but of these never above seventy met upon the trial. The members were chiefly composed of

the principal officers of the army, most of them of very mean birth, together with some of the lower house, and a few citizens of London. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen president, Coke was appointed solicitor for the people of England, Dorislaus, Steele, and Aske, were named assistants. The court sat in Westminster-hall.

The king was now conducted from Windsor to St. James's, and the next day was brought before the high court to take his trial. When he was brought forward, he was conducted by the mace-bearer to a chair placed within the bar. Though long detained a prisoner, and now produced as a criminal, he still sustained the dignity of a king; he surveyed the members of the court with a stern, haughty air, and without moving his hat, sat down, while the members also were covered. His charge was then read by the solicitor, accusing him of having been the cause of all the bloodshed which followed since the commencement of the war; at that part of the charge he could not suppress a smile of contempt and indignation. After the charge was finished, Bradshaw directed his discourse to the king, and told him, that the court expected his answer.

The king with great temper entered upon his defence, by declining the authority of the court. He represented, that having been engaged in treaty with his two houses of parliament, and having finished almost every article, he expected a different treatment from that he now received. He perceived, he said, no appearance of an upper house, which was necessary to constitute a just tribunal. That he was himself the king and fountain of law, and consequently could not be tried by laws to which he had never given his assent; that having been intrusted with the liberties of the people, he would not now betray them, by recognising a power founded in usurpation: that he was willing, before a proper tribunal, to enter into the particulars of his defence; but, that before them he must decline any apology for his innocence, lest he should be considered a betrayer of, and not a martyr for, the constitution.

Bradshaw, in order to support the authority of the court, insisted, that they had received their power from the people, the source of all right. He pressed the prisoner not to decline the authority of the court, which was delegated by the commons of England, and interrupted and overruled the

king in his attempts to reply. In this manner the king was three times produced before the court, and as often persisted in declining its jurisdiction. The fourth and last time he was brought before the self-created tribunal; as he was proceeding thither, he was insulted by the soldiers and the mob, who exclaimed, "Justice! Justice! Execution! Execution!" but he continued undaunted. His judges having examined some witnesses, by whom it was proved that the king had appeared in arms against the forces commissioned by parliament, they pronounced sentence against him.

The conduct of the king under all these instances of low-bred malice was great, firm, and equal: in going through the hall from this execrable tribunal, the soldiers and rāble were again instigated to cry out, "Justice and execution." They reviled him with the most bitter reproaches. Among other insults, one miscreant presumed to spit in the face of his sovereign. He patiently bore their insolence: "Poor souls," cried he, "they would treat their generals in the same manner for sixpence." Those of the populace who still retained the feelings of humanity, expressed their sorrows in sighs and tears. A soldier, more compassionate than the rest, could not help imploring a blessing on his royal head. An officer overhearing him, struck the honest sentinel to the ground before the king, who could not help saying, that the punishment exceeded the offence.

At his return to Whitehall, he desired the permission of the House to see his children, and to be attended in his private devotions by Dr. Juxon, late bishop of London. These requests were granted, and also three days to prepare for the execution of the sentence. All that remained of his family now in England, were the princess Elizabeth, and the duke of Gloucester, a child of about three years of age. After many seasonable and sensible exhortations to his daughter, he took his little son in his arms, and embracing him, "My child," said he, "they will cut off thy father's head; yes, they will cut off my head, and make thee a king. But mark what I say; thou must not be a king as long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive. They will cut off their heads when they can take them, and thy head, too, they will cut off at last; and therefore I charge thee, do not be made a king by them." The child, bursting into

tears replied, "I will be torn in pieces first." Every night during the interval between his sentence and execution, the king slept sound as usual, though the noise of the workmen, employed in framing the scaffold, continually resounded in his ears.

The fatal morning being at last arrived, he rose early, and calling one of his attendants, he bade him employ more than usual care in dressing him, and preparing him for so great and joyful a solemnity. The street before Whitehall was the place destined for his execution; for it was intended that this should increase the severity of the punishment. He was led through the Banqueting-house to the scaffold adjoining to that edifice, attended by his friend and servant bishop Juxon, a man endowed with the same mild and steady virtues as his master. The scaffold, which was covered with black, was guarded by a regiment of soldiers, under the command of colonel Tomlinson, and on it were to be seen the block, the axe, and the two executioners in masks. The people in great crowds stood at a greater distance, in dreadful expectation of the event. The king surveyed all these solemn preparations with calm composure; and as he could not expect to be heard by the people at a distance, he addressed himself to the few persons who stood around him. He there justified his own innocence in the late fatal war; and observed, that he had not taken arms till after the parliament had shown him the example. That he had no other object in his warlike preparations than to preserve that authority entire, which had been transmitted to him by his ancestors; but though innocent towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his execution in the eyes of his Maker. He owned that he was justly punished for having consented to the execution of an unjust sentence upon the earl of Strafford. He forgave all his enemies, exhorted the people to return to their obedience, and acknowledged his son as his successor, and signified his attachment to the protestant religion, as professed in the church of England. So strong was the impression his dying words made upon the few who could hear him, that colonel Tomlinson himself, to whose care he had been committed, acknowledged himself a convert.

While he was preparing himself for the block, bishop Juxon called out to him, "There is, Sir, but one stage

more, which, though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. It will soon carry you a great way. It will carry you from earth to heaven, and there you shall find, to your great joy, the prize to which you hasten, a crown of glory."—"I go," replied the king, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can have place."—"You exchange," replied the bishop, "a temporal for an eternal crown, a good exchange." Charles having taken off his cloak, delivered his George to the prelate, pronouncing the word, "Remember." Then he laid his neck on the block, and stretching out his hands as a signal, one of the executioners severed his head from his body at a blow, while the other, holding it up, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor." The spectators testified their horror at that sad spectacle in sighs, tears, and lamentations; the tide of their duty and affection began to return, and each blamed himself either with active disloyalty to his king, or a passive compliance with his destroyers.

Charles was executed in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. He <sup>Jan. 30,</sup> was of a middling stature, robust, and well-pro- 1648. portioned. His visage was pleasing, but melancholy; and it is probable, that the continued troubles in which he was involved, might have made that impression on his countenance. As for his character, the reader will deduce it with more precision and satisfaction to himself from the detail of his conduct, than from any summary given of it by the historian.

## CHAPTER XXIX.

THE COMMONWEALTH.—A. D. 1648—1660.

CROMWELL, who had secretly solicited and contrived the king's death, now began to feel wishes to which he had hitherto been a stranger. His prospects widening as he rose, his first principles of liberty were all lost in the unbounded stretch of power that lay before him. When appointed to command the army in Ireland, he had to combat against the royalists, commanded by the duke of Ormond, and the native Irish, led on by O'Neal. But such

ill-connected and barbarous troops could give very little opposition to Cromwell's more numerous forces, conducted by such a general, and emboldened by long success. He soon overran the whole country; and after some time, all the towns revolted in his favour, and opened their gates at his approach. But in these conquests, as in all the rest of his actions, there appeared a brutal ferocity; for in order to intimidate the natives from defending their towns, he put every garrison, that made any resistance, to the sword.

After his return to England, he received the thanks of the House, which then proceeded to choose a general for conducting the war in Scotland, where they had espoused the royal cause, and placed young Charles, the son of their late monarch, on the throne. Fairfax refusing this command upon principle, as he had all along declined opposing the presbyterians, the command necessarily devolved upon Cromwell, who boldly set forward to Scotland, at the head of an army of sixteen thousand men. The Scots, in the

mean time, who had invited over their wretched king to be a prisoner, not a ruler among them, prepared to meet the invasion; but a battle ensued, in which they, though double the number of the English, were soon put to flight, and pursued with great slaughter, while Cromwell did not lose above forty men in all.

In this terrible exigence, young Charles embraced a resolution worthy a prince who was willing to hazard all for empire. Observing that the way was open to England, he resolved to march immediately into that country, where he expected to be reinforced by all the royalists in that part of the kingdom. But the Scots, terrified at the prospect of so hazardous an enterprise, fell from him in great numbers; and the English, affrighted at the name of his opponent, dreaded to join him. His mortifications were still more increased as he arrived at Worcester, when informed, that Cromwell was marching with hasty strides from Scotland, with an army increased to forty thousand men. The news scarce arrived, when that active general himself appeared, and falling upon the town on all sides, broke in upon the disordered royalists. The streets were strewed with slaughter, the whole Scotch army was either killed or taken prisoners, and the king himself, having given many proofs of personal valour, was obliged to fly.

Imagination can scarce conceive adventures more romantic, or distress more severe, than those which attended the young king's escape from the scene of slaughter. After various disguises, and one and forty days concealment, he landed safely at Feschamp, in Normandy, although no less than forty men and women had at different times been privy to his escape.

In the mean time, Cromwell returned in triumph to London, where he was met by the speaker of the house, accompanied by the mayor of London, and the magistrates, in all their formalities. His first care was to take advantage of his late successes, by depressing the Scots, who had so lately withstood the work of the gospel, as he called it. An act was passed for abolishing royalty in Scotland, and annexing that kingdom, as a conquered province, to the English Commonwealth. It was empowered, however, to send some members to the English parliament. Judges were appointed to distribute justice; but the prudent conduct of Monk, who was left by Cromwell to complete their subjection, served much to reconcile the minds of the Scots.

In this manner the English parliament, by the means of Cromwell, spread their uncontested authority over all the British dominions. Ireland was totally subdued by Ireton and Ludlow. All the settlements in America, that had declared for the royal cause, were obliged to submit; Jersey, Guernsey, Scilly, and the Isle of Man, were brought easily under subjection. Thus mankind saw, with astonishment, a parliament composed of sixty or seventy obscure and illiterate members, governing a great empire with unanimity and success. Without any acknowledged subordination, except a council of state, consisting of thirty-eight, to whom all addresses were made, they levied armies, maintained fleets, and gave laws to the neighbouring powers of Europe. The finances were managed with economy and exactness; few private persons became rich by the plunder of the public: the revenues of the crown, the lands of the bishops, and a tax of an hundred and twenty thousand pounds each month, supplied the wants of the government, and gave vigour to all their proceedings.

The parliament having thus reduced their native dominions to perfect obedience, next resolved to chastise the Dutch, who had given but very slight causes of complaint.



It happened that one doctor Dorislaus, who was of the number of the late king's judges, being sent by the parliament as their envoy to Holland, was assassinated by one of the royal party, who had taken refuge there. Some time after, also, Mr. St. John, appointed their ambassador to that court, was insulted by the friends of the prince of Orange. These were thought motives sufficient to induce the Commonwealth of England to declare war against them. The parliament's chief dependence lay in the activity and courage of Blake, their admiral; who, though he had not embarked in naval command till late in life, yet surpassed all that went before him in courage and dexterity. On the other side, the Dutch opposed to him their famous admiral Van Tromp, to whom they never once produced an equal. These were the engagements between these celebrated admirals, and various was their success, but these dreadful encounters rather served to show the excellence of the admirals, than to determine their superiority. The Dutch, however, who felt many great disadvantages by the loss of their trade, were willing to treat for a peace; but the parliament refused to keep their navy on foot as long as they could; partly adding, that while the force of the nation was exerted at sea, it would diminish the power of general Cromwell by land, which was now become very formidable to them.

This great aspirer, however, quickly perceived their designs, and from the first saw that they dreaded his growing power, and wished its diminution. All his measures were conducted with a bold intrepidity, that marked his character, and he now saw, that it was not necessary to wear the mask of subordination any longer. Secure, therefore, in the attachment of the army, he resolved to make another daring effort, and persuaded the officers to present a petition for payment of arrears and redress of grievances, which he knew would be rejected by the commons with disdain. The petition was soon drawn up and presented, in which the officers, after demanding their arrears, desired the parliament to consider how many years they had sat; and what professions they had formerly made of their intentions to new model the house, and establish freedom on the broadest basis.

The house was highly offended at the presumption of

the army, although they had seen but too lately that their own power was wholly founded on that very presumption. They appointed a committee to prepare an act, ordaining that all persons who presented such petitions for the future, should be deemed guilty of high treason. To this the officers made a very warm remonstrance, and the parliament as angry a reply; and the breach between them every moment grew wider. This was what Cromwell had long wished, and had long foreseen. He was sitting in council with his officers, when informed of the subject on which the house was deliberating; upon which he rose up in the most seeming fury, and turning to major Vernon, cried out, "That he was compelled to do a thing that made the very hair of his head to stand on end." Then he hastened to the house with three hundred soldiers, with the marks of violent indignation on his countenance. Stamping with his foot, which was the signal for the soldiers to enter, the place was immediately filled with armed men. Then addressing himself to the members: "For shame," said he "get you gone. Give place to honest men; to those who will more faithfully discharge their trust. You are no longer a parliament; I tell you, you are no longer a parliament; the Lord has done with you." Sir Harry Vane exclaiming against this conduct: "Sir Harry!" cried Cromwell with a loud voice, "O sir Harry Vane, the Lord deliver me from sir Harry Vane!" Taking hold of one by the cloak, Thou art a whore-master; to another, Thou art an adulterer; to a third, Thou art a drunkard; to a fourth, thou art a glutton. "It is you," continued he to the members, "that have forced me upon this. I have sought the Lord night and day, that he would rather slay me, than put me upon this work." Then pointing to the mace, "Take away," cried he, "that bauble." After which, turning out all the members, and clearing the hall, he ordered the doors to be locked, and putting the key in his pocket, returned to Whitehall.

The persons he pitched upon for his next parliament, were the lowest, meanest, and the most ignorant among the citizens, and the very dregs of the fanatics. He was well apprized that during the administration of such a group of characters he alone must govern, or that they must soon throw up the reins of government, which they were unqualified to guide. Accordingly, their practice justified his sa-

gacity. One of them particularly, who was called Praise-God-Barebones, a canting leatherseller, gave his name to this odd assembly, as it was called Barebones' Parliament. But the very vulgar began to exclaim against so foolish a legislature; and some of themselves seemed not insensible of this ridicule. And these, by consent, met earlier than the rest of their fraternity; and observing to each other, that this parliament had sat long enough, they hastened to Cromwell, with Rouse their speaker at their head, and into his hands they resigned their authority. This Cromwell accepted with pleasure; but being told that some of the number were refractory, he sent colonel White to clear the house of such as ventured to remain there. They had placed one Moyer in the chair by the time that the colonel had arrived; and he being asked by the colonel "What they did there?" Moyer replied very gravely, that they were seeking the Lord. "Then you may go elsewhere," cried White; "for to my certain knowledge the Lord has not been here these many years."

This shadow of a parliament being dissolved, the officers, by their own authority, declared Cromwell protector of the Commonwealth of England. He was to be addressed by the title of Highness; and his power was proclaimed in London, and the other parts of the kingdom. Thus an obscure and vulgar man, at the age of fifty-three rose to unbounded power; first by following small events in his favour, and at length by directing great ones.

Cromwell chose his council among his officers, who had been the companions of his dangers and his victories, to each of whom he assigned a pension of one thousand pounds a year. He took care to have his troops, upon whose fidelity he depended for support, paid a month in advance: the magazines were also well provided, and the public treasury managed with frugality and care; while his activity, vigilance, and resolution were such, that he discovered every conspiracy against his person, and every plot for an insurrection before they took effect. His management of foreign affairs corresponded with his character, and, for a while, were attended with success. The Dutch having been humbled by repeated defeats, and totally abridged in their commercial concerns, were obliged at last to sue for peace, which he gave them upon these terms. He insisted upon

their paying deference to the British flag; he compelled them to abandon the interest of the king, and to pay eighty-five thousand pounds, as an indemnification for former expenses, and to restore the English East India Company a part of those dominions of which they had been dispossessed by the Dutch during the former reign.

Nor was he less successful in his negotiations with the court of France. Cardinal Mazarine, by whom the affairs of that kingdom were conducted, deemed it necessary to pay deference to the protector; and desirous rather to prevail by dexterity than violence, submitted to Cromwell's imperious character, and thus procured ends equally beneficial to both.

The court of Spain was not less assiduous in its endeavours to gain his friendship, but was not so successful. This vast monarchy, which but a few years before had threatened the liberties of Europe, was now reduced so low as to be scarce able to defend itself. Cromwell, however, who knew nothing of foreign politics, still continued to regard its power with an eye of jealousy, and came into an association with France to depress it still more. He lent that court a body of six thousand men to attack the Spanish dominions in the Netherlands: and upon obtaining a signal victory by his assistance at Dunes, the French put Dunkirk, which they had just taken from the Spaniards, into his hands, as a reward for his attachment.

But it was by sea, that he humbled the power of Spain with still more effectual success. Blake, who had long made himself formidable to the Dutch, and whose fame was spread over Europe, now became still more dreadful to the Spanish monarchy. He sailed with a fleet into the Mediterranean, whither, since the time of the crusaders, no English fleet had ventured to advance. He there conquered all that dared to oppose him. Casting anchor before Leghorn, he demanded and obtained satisfaction for some injuries which the English commerce had suffered from the duke of Tuscany. He next sailed to Algiers, and compelled the Dey to make peace, and to restrain his piratical subjects from farther injuring the English. He then went to Tunis, and having made the same demands, he was desired by the Dey of that place to look at the two castles, Porto Farino, and Goletta, and do his utmost.

Blake showed him that he was not slow in accepting the challenge; he entered the harbour, burned the shipping there, and then sailed out triumphantly to pursue his voyage. At Cadiz he took two galleons, valued at near two millions of pieces of eight. At the Canaries he burned a Spanish fleet of sixteen ships, and returning home to England, to enjoy the fame of his noble actions, as he came within sight of his native country he expired. This gallant man, though he fought for an usurper, yet was averse to his cause; he was a zealous republican in principle, and his aim was to serve his country, not to establish a tyrant. "It is still our duty," he would say to the seamen, "to fight for our country into whatever hands the government may fall."

At the same time that Blake's expeditions were going forward, there was another carried on under the command of admirals Pen and Venables, with about four thousand land forces, to attack the island of Hispaniola. Failing, however, in this, and being driven off the place by the Spaniards, they steered to Jamaica, which was surrendered to them without a blow. So little was thought of the importance of this conquest, that, upon the return of the expedition, Pen and Venables were sent to the Tower, for their failure in the principal object of their expedition.

But it must not be supposed that Cromwell's situation was at this time enviable. Perhaps no station could be more truly distressing than his, at a time the nation was loading him with congratulations and addresses. He had rendered himself hateful to every party; and he owed his safety to their mutual hatred and diffidence of each other. His arts of dissimulation had been long exhausted; none now could be deceived by them, those of his own party and principles disdaining the use to which he had converted his zeal and professions. The whole nation silently detested his administration, but he had not still been reduced to the extreme of wretchedness, if he could have found domestic consolation, but even Fleetwood, his son-in-law, detested that character which could use religious professions for the purposes of temporal advancement. His eldest daughter, married to Fleetwood, had adopted republican principles so vehemently, that she could not behold even her own father, intrusted with uncontrollable power. His other daughters were no less sanguine in favour of the

royal cause; and Mrs. Claypole, his favourite daughter, upon her deathbed, upbraided him with all those crimes that led him to trample on the throne,

Every hour added some new disquietude. Lord Fairfax, sir William Waller, and many of the heads of the presbyterians, had secretly entered into an engagement to destroy him. His administration, so expensive both at home and abroad, had exhausted his revenue, and he was left considerably in debt. One conspiracy was no sooner detected, but another rose from its ruins; and to increase his calamity, he was now taught, upon reasoning principles, that his death was not only desirable, but his assassination would be meritorious. A book was published by colonel Titus, a man who had formerly been attached to his cause, entitled, *Killing no Murder*. Of all the pamphlets that came forth at that time, this was the most eloquent and masterly. Cromwell read it, and was never seen to smile more. The fear of assassination haunted him in all his walks, and was perpetually present to his imagination. He wore armour under his clothes, and always kept pistols in his pockets. His aspect was clouded by a settled gloom; and he regarded every stranger with a glance of timid suspicion. He always travelled with hurry, and was ever attended by a numerous guard. He never returned from any place by the road he went; and seldom slept above three nights together in the same chamber. Society terrified him; as there he might meet an enemy; solitude was terrible, as he was there unguarded by every friend.

A tertian ague kindly came at last to deliver him from this life of horror and anxiety. For the space of a week no dangerous symptoms appeared; and in the intervals of the fits he was able to walk abroad. At length the fever increased, and he became delirious. He was just able to answer Yes, to the demand, whether his son Richard should be appointed to succeed him. He died on the third  
 A. D. of September, that very day which he had always  
 1658. considered as the most fortunate of his life; he was then fifty-nine years old, and had usurped the government nine years.

Whatever might have been the difference of interest after the death of the usurper, the influence of his name was still sufficient to get Richard his son proclaimed protector in

his room. But the army discontented with such a leader, established a meeting at general Fleetwood's, which, as he dwelt in Wallingford-house, was called the Cabal of Wallingford. The result of their deliberation was a remonstrance that the command of the army should be intrusted to some person in whom they might all confide; and it was plainly given to understand that the young protector was not that person. And Richard, who wanted resolution to defend his title, soon signed his abdication in form, and retired to live several years after his resignation, at first on the continent, and afterwards upon his paternal fortune at home.

The officers being once more left to themselves, determined to replace the remnant of the old parliament which had beheaded the king, and which Cromwell had so disgracefully turned out of the house. The Rump parliament, for that was the name it went by, being now reinstated, became vigorous in its attempts to lessen the power by which it was replaced. The officers in the army therefore determined, as was usual enough in these times, to dissolve the assembly, by which they were so vehemently opposed. Accordingly Lambert, one of the generals, drew up a chosen body of the troops, and placing them in the streets which led to Westminster-hall, when the speaker, Lenthall, proceeded in his carriage to the house, he ordered the horses to be turned, and very civilly conducted him home. The other members were likewise intercepted, and the army returned to their quarters to observe a solemn fast, which generally either preceded, or attended their outrages.

During these transactions, general Monk was at the head of eight thousand veterans in Scotland, and beheld the distraction of his native country with but slender hopes of removing it. Whatever might have been his designs, it was impossible to cover them with greater secrecy than he did. As soon as he put his army in motion, to inquire into the causes of the disturbances in the capital, his countenance was eagerly sought by all the contending parties. He still however continued to march his army towards the capital: all the world equally in doubt as to his motives, and astonished at his reserve. But Monk continued his inflexible taciturnity, and at last came to St. Alban's within a few miles of London.

He there sent the Rump parliament, who had resumed

their seat, a message, desiring them to remove such forces as remained in London to the country quarters. In the mean time the House of Commons having passed votes for the composure of the kingdom, dissolved themselves, and gave orders for the immediate assembling a new parliament.

A. D. 1660. As yet the new parliament was not assembled, and no person had hitherto dived into the designs of the general. He still persevered in his reserve; and although the calling a new parliament was but in other words to restore the king, yet his expressions never once betrayed the secret of his bosom. Nothing but a security of confidence at last extorted the confession from him. He had been intimate with one Morrice, a gentleman of Devonshire, of a sedentary, studious disposition, and with him alone did he deliberate upon the great and dangerous enterprise of the restoration. Sir John Granville, who had a commission from the king, applied for access to the general; he was desired to communicate his business to Morrice. Granville refused, though twice urged, to deliver his message to any but the general himself: so that Monk now finding he could depend upon this minister's secrecy, opened to him his whole intentions; but with his usual caution still scrupled to commit any thing to paper. In consequence of this, the king left the Spanish territories, where he very narrowly escaped being detained at Brèda by the governor, under pretence of treating him with proper respect and formality. From thence he retired into Holland, where he resolved to wait for farther advice.

At length the long expected day for the sitting of a free parliament arrived. The affections of all were turned towards the king; yet such dangers attended a freedom of speech, that no one dared for some days to make any mention of his name. All this time Monk, with his usual reserve, tried their tempers, and examined the ardour of their wishes; at length he gave directions to Annesley, president of the council, to inform them that one sir John Granville, a servant of the king, had been sent over by his majesty, and was now at the door with a letter to the commons. Nothing could exceed the joy and transport with which this message was received. The members for a moment forgot the dignity of their situations, and indulged in a loud acclamation of applause. Granville was called in,



the letter eagerly read. A moment's pause was scarce allowed; all at once the house burst out into an universal assent to the king's proposals; and to diffuse the joy more widely, it was voted that the letter and indemnity should immediately be published.

Charles II. entered London on the twenty-ninth of May, which was his birthday. An innumerable concourse of people lined the way wherever he passed, and rent the air with their acclamations. They had been so long distracted by unrelenting factions, oppressed and alarmed by a succession of tyrannies, that they could no longer suppress these emotions of delight to behold their constitution restored; or rather, like a phoenix, appearing more beautiful and vigorous from the ruins of its former conflagration.

## CHAPTER XXX.

CHARLES II.—A. D. 1648. USURPATION—1660, 1685.

WHEN Charles came to the throne he was thirty years of age, possessed of an agreeable person, and elegant address, and an engaging manner. His whole demeanour and behaviour was well calculated to support and increase popularity. Accustomed during his exile to live cheerfully among his courtiers, he carried the same endearing familiarities to the throne; and, from the levity of his temper, no injuries were dreaded from his former resentments. But it was soon found that all these advantages were merely superficial. His indolence and love of pleasure, made him averse to all kinds of business; his familiarities were prostitute to the worst as well as the best of his subjects; and he took no care to reward his former friends, as he had taken few steps to be revenged of his former enemies.

Though an act of indemnity was passed, those who had an immediate hand in the king's death were exempted. Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw, though dead, were considered as proper objects of resentment; their bodies were dug from their graves, dragged to the place of execution, and after hanging some time, buried under the gallows. Of the rest, who sat in judgment on the late monarch's trial, some were dead, and some were thought worthy of pardon.

Ten only, out of fourscore, were devoted to immediate destruction. These were enthusiasts, who had all along acted from principle, and who, in the general spirit of rage excited against them, showed a fortitude that might do honour to a better cause.

This was the time for the king to have made himself independent of all parliaments; and it is said that Southampton, one of his ministers, had thought of procuring his master from the commons the grant of a revenue of two millions a year, which would have effectually rendered him absolute; but in this his views were obstructed by the great Clarendon, who, though attached to the king, was still more the friend of liberty and the laws. Charles, however, was no way interested in these opposite views of his ministers; he only desired money in order to prosecute his pleasures; and provided he had that, he little regarded the manner in which it was obtained.

His continual exigencies drove him constantly to measures no way suited to his inclination. Among others, was his marriage celebrated at this time with Catherine, the infant of Portugal, who, though a virtuous princess, possessed as it should seem but few personal attractions. It was the portion of this princess that the needy monarch was enamoured of, which amounted to three hundred thousand pounds, together with the fortress of Tangier in Africa, and of Bombay in the East Indies. The chancellor Clarendon, the dukes of Ormond and Southampton, urged many reasons against this match, particularly the likelihood of her never having any children; the king disregarded their advice, and the inauspicious marriage was celebrated accordingly. It was probably also with a view of supporting his measures that he declared war against the Dutch, as the money appointed for that purpose would go through his hands. In this naval war, which continued to rage for some years with great fierceness, much blood was spilt, and great treasure exhausted, until at last a treaty was concluded at Breda, by which the colony of New York was ceded by the Dutch to the English, and considered as a most valuable acquisition. But this was considered as inglorious to the English, as they gained no redress upon the complaints which gave rise to it. Lord Clarendon, particularly, was blamed both for having first advised an unnecessary war, and then for concluding a

disgraceful peace. He had been long declining in the king's favour, and he was no less displeasing to the majority of the people; and this seemed the signal for his enemies to step in, and effect his entire overthrow. A charge was opened against him in the house of commons by Mr. Seymour, consisting of seventeen articles. These, which were only a catalogue of the popular rumours before mentioned, appeared at first sight false or frivolous. However, Clarendon finding the popular torrent, united to the violence of power, running with impetuosity against him, thought proper to withdraw to France.

Having thus got rid of his virtuous minister, the king soon after resigned himself to the direction of a set of men who afterwards went by the appellation of the Cabal, from the Initials of the names of which it was composed. The first of them, sir Thomas Clifford, was a man of a daring and impetuous spirit, rendered more dangerous by eloquence and intrigue. Lord Ashley, soon after known by the name of lord Shaftsbury, was turbulent, ambitious, subtle, and enterprising. The duke of Buckingham was gay, capricious, of some wit, and great vivacity. Arlington was a man of very moderate capacity: his intentions were good, but he wanted courage to persevere in them. Lastly, the duke of Landerdale, who was not defective in natural, and still less in acquired talents; but neither was his address graceful, nor

his understanding just; he was ambitious, obstinate, insolent, and sullen. These were the men to whom  
 A. D. 1670. Charles gave up the conduct of his affairs; and who plunged the remaining part of his reign in difficulties, which produced the most dangerous symptoms.

From this inauspicious combination the people had entertained violent jealousies against the court. The fears and discontents of the nation were vented without restraint: the apprehension of a popish successor, an abandoned court, and a parliament which, though sometimes asserters of liberty, yet which had now continued for seventeen years without change, naturally rendered the minds of mankind timid and suspicious, and they only wanted objects on which to wreak their ill humour.

When the spirit of the English is once roused, they either find objects of suspicion or make them. On the 12th of August, one Kirby, a chemist, accosted the king as he was

walking in the park. "Sir," said he, "keep within the company; your enemies have a design upon your life, and you may be shot in this very walk." Being questioned in consequence of this strange intimation, he offered to produce one Dr. Tongue, a weak, credulous clergyman, who had told him, that two persons, named Grove and Pickering, were engaged to murder the king; and that Sir George Wakeman, the queen's physician, had undertaken the same task by poison. Tongue was introduced to the king with a bundle of papers relating to this pretended conspiracy, and was referred to the lord treasurer Danby. He there declared that the papers were thrust under his door; and he afterwards asserted, that he knew the author of them, who desired that his name might be concealed, as he dreaded the resentment of the Jesuits.

This information appeared so vague and unsatisfactory, that the king concluded the whole was a fiction. However, Tongue went again to the lord treasurer, and told him, that a packet of letters, written by Jesuits concerned in the plot, was that night to be put into the posthouse for Windsor, directed to one Bedingfield, a Jesuit, who was confessor to the duke of York, and who resided there. These letters had actually been received a few hours before by the duke, but he had shown them to the king as a forgery, of which he neither knew the drift nor the meaning.

Titus Oates, who was the fountain of all this dreadful intelligence, was produced soon after, and, with seeming reluctance, came to give his evidence. This Titus Oates was an abandoned miscreant, obscure, illiterate, vulgar, and indigent. He had been once indicted for perjury, was afterwards chaplain on board a man of war, and dismissed for unnatural practices. He then professed himself a Roman catholic, and crossed the sea to St. Omer's, where he was for some time maintained in the English seminary of that city. At a time that he was supposed to have been intrusted with a secret involving the fate of kings, he was allowed to remain in such necessity, that Kirby was obliged to supply him with daily bread.

He had two methods to pursue, either to ingratiate himself by this information with the ministry, or to alarm the people, and thus turn their fears to his advantage. He chose the latter method. He went, therefore, with

his two companions, to Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey, a noted and active justice of the peace, and before him deposed to a narrative dressed up in terrors fit to make an impression on the vulgar. The pope, he said, considered himself as entitled to the possession of England and Ireland, on account of the heresy of the prince and people, and had accordingly assumed the sovereignty of these kingdoms. The king, whom the Jesuits call the Black Bastard, was solemnly tried by them, and condemned as an heretic. Grove and Pickering, to make sure work, were employed to shoot the king, and that too with silver bullets. The duke of York was to be offered the crown in consequence of the success of these probable schemes, on condition of extirpating the protestant religion. Upon his refusal, "To pot James must go," as the Jesuits were said to express it.

In consequence of this dreadful information, sufficiently marked with absurdity, vulgarity, and contradiction, Titus Oates became the favourite of the people, notwithstanding during his examination before the council, he so betrayed the grossness of his impostures, that he contradicted himself in every step of his narration. A great number of the Jesuits mentioned by Oates were immediately taken into custody. Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, who was said to have acted so strenuous a part in the conspiracy, at first retired, but next day surrendered himself to the secretary of state, and some of his papers, by Oates's directions, were secured.

In this fluctuation of passions an accident served to confirm the prejudices of the people, and to put it beyond a doubt that Oates's narrative was nothing but the truth. Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey, who had been so active in unravelling the whole mystery of the popish machinations, after having been missing some days, was found dead in a ditch by Primrose-hill, in the way to Hampstead. The cause of his death remains, and must still continue, a secret; but the people, already enraged against the papists, did not hesitate a moment to ascribe it to them. The body of Godfrey was carried through the street in procession, preceded by seventy clergymen; and every one who saw it made no doubt that his death could be only caused by the papists. Even the better sort of people were infected with this vulgar prejudice, and such was the general conviction

of popish guilt, that no man, with any regard to personal safety, could express the least doubt concerning the information of Oates, or the murder of Godfrey.

In order to continue and propagate the alarm, the parliament affected to believe it true. An address was voted for a solemn fast. It was requested that all papers tending to throw light upon so horrible a conspiracy might be laid before the house; that all papists should remove from London; that access should be denied at court to all unknown and suspicious person; and that the train-bands in London and Westminster should be in readiness to march. Oates was recommended by parliament to the king. He was lodged in Whitehall, and encouraged by a pension of twelve hundred pounds a year to proceed in forging new informations.

The encouragement given to Oates did not fail to bring in others also, who hoped to profit by the delusion of the times. William Bedloe, a man, if possible, more infamous than Oates, appeared next upon the stage. He was, like the former, of very low birth, and had been noted for several cheats and thefts. At his own desire he was arrested at Bristol, and conveyed to London, where he declared before the council that he had seen the body of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey at Somerset-house, where the queen lived. He said that a servant of Lord Bellasis offered to give him four thousand pounds if he would carry it off; and finding all his information greedily received, he confirmed and heightened Oates's plot with aggravated horrors. Thus encouraged by the general voice in their favour, the witnesses, who all along had enlarged their narratives, in proportion as they were eagerly received, went a step farther, and ventured to accuse the queen. The commons, in an address to the king, gave countenance to this scandalous accusation; the lords rejected it with becoming disdain.

Edward Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, was the first who was brought to trial. Bedloe swore that he had received a commission, signed by the superior of the Jesuits, appointing him papal secretary of state, and that he had consented to the king's assassination. After this unfortunate man's sentence, thus procured by these vipers, many members of both houses offered to interpose in his behalf, if he would make an ample confession; but, as he was in

reality possessed of no treasonable secrets, he would not procure life by falsehood and imposture. He suffered with calmness and constancy, and to the last persisted in the strongest protestations of his innocence.

The trial of Coleman was succeeded by those of Ireland, Pickering, and Grove. They were found guilty, but went to execution protesting their innocence, a circumstance which made no impression on the spectators; their being Jesuits, banished even pity from their sufferings. Hill, Green, and Berry, were tried upon the evidence of one Miles Prance, for the murder of Godfrey; but though Bedloe's narrative, and Prance's information, were totally irreconcilable, and though their testimony was invalidated by contrary evidence, the prisoners were condemned and executed. They all denied their guilt at execution; and as Berry died a protestant, this circumstance was regarded as very considerable.

Whitbread, provincial of the Jesuits, Fenwick, Gavan, Turner, and Harcourt, all of them of the same order, were brought to their trial, and Langhorne soon after. Besides Oates and Bedloe, Dugdale, a new witness, appeared against the prisoners. This man spread the alarm still farther, and asserted, that two hundred thousand papists in England were ready to take arms. The prisoners proved, by sixteen witnesses from St. Omer's, that Oates was in that seminary at the time he swore he was at London. But as they were papists, their testimony could gain no manner of credit. All pleas availed them nothing; both the Jesuits and Langhorne were condemned and executed, with their last breath denying the crimes for which they died.

The informers had less success on the trial of Sir George Wakeman, the queen's physician, who, though they swore with their usual animosity, was acquitted. His condemnation would have involved the queen in his guilt; and it is probable the judge and jury were afraid of venturing so far.

The earl of Stafford, near two years after, was the last man who fell a sacrifice to these bloody wretches; the witnesses produced against him were Oates, Dugdale, and Tuberville. Oates swore that he saw Fenwick, the Jesuit, deliver Stafford a commission from the general of the Jesuits, constituting him paymaster of the papal army. The

clamour and outrage of the populace against the prisoner was very great; he was found guilty, and condemned to be hanged and quartered; but the king changed the sentence into that of beheading. He was executed on Tower-hill, where even his persecutors could not forbear shedding tears at that serene fortitude which shone in every feature, motion, and accent of this aged nobleman.

This parliament had continued to sit for seventeen years without interruption, when a new one was called; in which was passed the celebrated statute, called the Habeas Corpus Act, which confirms the subject in an absolute security from oppressive power. By this act it was prohibited to send any one to prisons beyond the sea; no judge, under severe penalties, was to refuse to any prisoner his writ of habeas corpus, by which the gaoler was to produce in court the body of the prisoner, whence the writ had its name, and to certify the cause of his detainer and imprisonment. If the gaol lie within twenty miles of the judge, the writ must be obeyed in three days, and so proportionably for greater distances. Every prisoner must be indicted the first term of his commitment, and brought to trial the subsequent term. And no man, after being enlarged by court, can be re-committed for the same offence.

The Meal-Tub Plot, as it was called, soon followed the former. One Dangerfield, a wretch who had been set in the pillory, scourged, branded, and transported for felony and coining, hatched a plot, in conjunction with a midwife, whose name was Cellier, a Roman catholic, of abandoned character. Dangerfield began by declaring, that there was a design on foot to set up a new form of government, and remove the king and the royal family. He communicated this intelligence to the king and the duke of York, who supplied him with money, and countenanced his discovery. He hid some seditious papers in the lodgings of one colonel Mansel; and then brought the custom-house officers to his apartment, to search for smuggled merchandise. The papers were found, and the council having examined the affair, concluded they were forged by Dangerfield. They ordered all the places he frequented to be searched; and in the house of Cellier the whole scheme of the conspiracy was discovered upon paper, concealed in a meal-tub, from whence the plot had its name. Dangerfield being com-



mitted to Newgate, made an ample confession of the forgery, which, though probably entirely of his own contrivance, he ascribed to the earl of Castlemain, the countess of Powis, and the five lords in the Tower. He said that the design was to suborn witnesses to prove a charge of perjury upon Oates, to assassinate the earl of Shaftesbury, to accuse the dukes of Monmouth and Buckingham, the earls of Essex, Halifax, and others, of having been concerned in the conspiracy against the king and his brother. Upon this information, the earl of Castlemain, and the countess of Powis were sent to the Tower, and the king himself was suspected of encouraging this imposture.

The chief point which the present house of commons laboured to obtain, was the Exclusion Bill, which, though the former house had voted, was never passed into a law. Shaftesbury, and many considerable men of the party, had rendered themselves so obnoxious to the duke of York, that they could find safety in no measure but his ruin. Monmouth's friends hoped that the exclusion of James would make room for their own patron. The duke of York's professed bigotry to the catholic superstition influenced numbers; and his tyrannies, which were practised without control while he continued in Scotland, rendered his name odious to thousands. In a week, therefore, after the commencement of the sessions, a motion was made for bringing in a bill for excluding him from the succession to the throne: and a committee was appointed for that purpose. The debates were carried on with great violence on both sides. The king was present during the whole debate, and had the pleasure of seeing the bill thrown out by a very great majority.

Each party had now for some time reviled and ridiculed each other in pamphlets and libels; and this practice, at last, was attended with an incident that deserves notice. One Fitzharris, an Irish papist, dependent on the duchess of Portsmouth, one of the king's mistresses, used to supply her with these occasional publications. But he was resolved to add to their number by his own endeavours; and employed one Everard, a Scotchman, to write a libel against the king and the duke of York. The Scot was actually a spy for the opposite party: and supposing this a trick to entrap him, he discovered the whole to Sir Wil-

liam Waller, an eminent justice of peace : and to convince him of the truth of his information, posted him, and two other persons, privately, where they heard the whole conference between Fitzharris and himself. The libel composed between them was replete with the utmost rancour and scurrility. Waller carried the intelligence to the king, and obtained a warrant for committing Fitzharris, who happened at that very time to have a copy of the libel in his pocket. Seeing himself in the hands of a party, from which he expected no mercy, he resolved to side with them, and throw the odium of the libel upon the court, who, he said, were willing to draw up a libel, which should be imputed to the exclusioners, and thus render them hateful to the people. He enhanced his services with the country party, by a new popish plot, still more tremendous than any of the foregoing. He brought in the duke of York as a principal accomplice in this plot, and as a contriver in the murder of sir Edmonsbury Godfrey.

The king imprisoned Fitzharris; the commons avowed his cause. They voted, that he should be impeached by themselves, to screen him from the ordinary forms of justice; the lords rejected the impeachment; the commons asserted their right: a commotion was likely to ensue; and the king, to break off the contest, went to the house, and dissolved the parliament, with a fixed resolution never to call another. This vigorous measure was a blow that the parliament had never expected: and nothing but the necessity of the times could have justified the king's manner of proceeding. From that moment, which ended the parliamentary commotions, Charles seemed to rule with despotic power, and he was resolved to leave the succession to his brother, clogged with all the faults and misfortunes of his own administration. His temper, which had always been easy and merciful, now became arbitrary, and even cruel: he entertained spies and informers round the throne, and imprisoned all such as he thought most daring in their designs.

He resolved to humble the Presbyterians, whom he divested of their employments and their places, which were given to such as held with the court, and approved the doctrine of non-resistance. The clergy began to testify their zeal and their principles by their writings and their sermons;

but though among these the partisans of the king were the most numerous, those of the opposite faction were the most enterprising. The king openly espoused the cause of the former; and thus placing himself at the head of a faction, he deprived the city of London, which had long headed the popular party, of their charter. It was not till after an abject submission that he restored it to them, having previously subjected the election of their magistrates to his immediate authority.

Terrors also were not wanting to confirm his new species of monarchy. Fitzharris was brought to his trial before a jury, and condemned and executed. The whole gang of spies, witnesses, informers, suborners, which had long been encouraged and supported by the leading patriots, finding now that the king was entirely master, turned short upon their ancient drivers, and offered their evidence against those who had first put them in motion. The king's ministers, with a horrid satisfaction, gave them countenance and encouragement; so that soon the same cruelties and the same injustice, were practised against presbyterian schemes, that had been employed against catholic treasons.

The first person who fell under the displeasure of the ministry was one Stephen College, a London joiner, who had become so noted for his zeal against popery, that he went by the name of the Protestant Joiner. He had attended the city members to Oxford, armed with sword and pistol; he had sometimes been heard to speak irreverently of the king, and was now presented by the grand jury of London as guilty of sedition. A jury at Oxford, after half an hour's deliberation, brought him in guilty, and the spectators testified their inhuman pleasure with a shout of applause. He bore his fate with unshaken fortitude; and at the place of execution, denied the crime for which he had been condemned.

A. D. 1683. The power of the crown at this time became irresistible, the city of London having been deprived of their charter, which was restored only upon terms of submission; and the giving up the nomination of their own magistrates was so mortifying a circumstance, that all the other corporations in England soon began to fear the same treatment, and were successively induced to surrender their charters into the hands of the king. Considerable sums

were exacted for restoring these charters; and all the offices of trust, power, and profit, were left at the disposal of the crown. Resistance now, however justifiable, could not be safe; and prudent men saw no other expedient, but peaceably submitting to the present grievances. But there was a party in England that still cherished their former ideas of freedom, and were resolved to hazard every danger in its defence.

The duke of Monmouth, the king's natural son, by Mrs. Waters, engaged the earl of Macclesfield, lord Brandon, sir Gilbert Gerrard, and other gentlemen in Cheshire, in his cause. Lord Russel fixed a correspondence with sir William Courtney, sir Francis Rowles, and sir Francis Drake, who promised to raise the West. Shaftesbury, with one Ferguson, an independent clergyman managed the city, upon which the confederates chiefly relied. It was now that this turbulent man found his schemes most likely to take effect; and after the disappointment and destruction of an hundred plots, he at last began to be surc of this. But, like all the former, it was disappointed. The caution of lord Russel, who induced the duke of Monmouth to put off the enterprise, saved the kingdom from the horrors of a civil war; while Shaftesbury was so struck with the sense of his impending danger that he left his house, and lurking about the city, attempted, but in vain, to drive the Londoners into open insurrection. At last enraged at the numberless cautions and delays which clogged and defeated his projects, he threatened to begin with his friends alone. However, after a long struggle between fear and rage, he abandoned all hopes of success, and fled out of the kingdom to Amsterdam, where he ended his turbulent life soon after, without being pitied by his friends, or feared by his enemies.

The loss of Shaftesbury, though it retarded the views of the conspirators, did not suppress them. A council of six was erected, consisting of Monmouth, Russel, Essex, Howard, Algernon Sidney, and John Hampden, grandson to the great man of that name. These, together with the duke of Argyle, were the leaders of this conspiracy. But there was also a set of subordinate conspirators, who frequently met together, and carried on projects quite unknown to Monmouth and his council. Among these was colonel Rumsey, an old republican officer, together with lieutenant-

colonel Walcot; of the same stamp, Goodenough, under-sheriff of London, a zealous and noted party-man, Ferguson, the independent minister, and several attornies, merchants, and tradesmen of London. These men in their meetings embraced the most desperate resolutions. They proposed to assassinate the king in his way to Newmarket; Rumbal, one of the party, possessed a farm upon that road called the Rye-house, and from thence the conspiracy was denominated the Rye-house Plot. They deliberated upon a scheme of stopping the king's coach by overturning a cart on the highway at this place, and shooting him through the hedges. The house in which the king lived at Newmarket, took fire accidentally, and he was obliged to leave Newmarket eight days sooner than was expected, to which circumstance his safety was ascribed.

Among the conspirators was one Keiling, who, finding himself in danger of a prosecution for arresting the lord mayor of London, resolved to earn his pardon by discovering this plot to the ministry. Colonel Rumsey, and West, a lawyer, no sooner understood this, than they agreed to save their lives by turning king's evidence, and surrendered themselves accordingly. Monmouth absconded; Russel was sent to the Tower; Grey escaped; Howard was taken concealed in a chimney; Essex, Sidney, and Hampden, were soon after arrested, and had the mortification to find lord Howard an evidence against them.

Walcot was first brought to trial and condemned, together with Hone and Rouse, two associates in the conspiracy, upon the evidence of Rumsey, West, and Shepherd. They died acknowledging the justice of this sentence. A much greater sacrifice was shortly after to follow. This was the lord Russel, son of the earl of Bedford, a nobleman of good qualities, and led into this conspiracy from a conviction of the duke of York's intentions to restore popery. He was liberal, popular, humane, and brave. All his virtues were so many crimes in the present suspicious disposition of the court. The chief evidence against him was lord Howard, a man of very bad character, one of the conspirators, who was now contented to take life upon such terms, and to accept of infamous safety. This witness swore that Russel was engaged in the design of an insurrection; but he acquitted him, as did also Rumsey and West, of being privy.

to the assassination. The jury, who were zealous royalists, after a short deliberation, brought the prisoner in guilty, and he was condemned to suffer beheading. The scaffold for his execution was erected in Lincoln's-inn-fields, he laid his head on the block without the least change of countenance, and at two strokes it was severed from his body.

The celebrated Algernon Sidney, son to the earl of Leicester, was next brought to his trial. He had been formerly engaged in the parliamentary army against the late king, and was even named on the high court of justice that tried him, but had not taken his seat among the judges. He had ever opposed Cromwell's usurpation, and went into voluntary banishment upon the Restoration. His affairs, however, requiring his return, he applied to the king for a pardon, and obtained his request. But all his hopes and all his reasonings, were formed upon republican principles. For his adored republic, he had written and fought, and went into banishment, and ventured to return. It may easily be conceived how obnoxious a man of such principles was to a court that now was not even content to be without limitations to its power. They went so far as to take illegal methods to procure his condemnation. The only witness that deposed against Sidney was lord Howard, and the law required two. In order, therefore, to make out a second witness, they had recourse to a very extraordinary expedient. In ransacking his closet some discourses on government were found in his own handwriting, containing principles favourable to liberty, but in themselves no way subversive of a limited government. By overstraining some of these they were construed into treason. It was in vain, he alleged that papers were no evidence; that it could not be proved they were written by him; that, if proved, the papers themselves contained nothing criminal. His defence was overruled; the violent and inhuman Jefferies, who was now chief-justice, early prevailed on a partial jury to bring him in guilty, and his execution followed soon after. One can scarce contemplate the transactions of this reign without horror. Such a picture of factious guilt on each side, a court at once immersed in sensuality and blood, a people armed against each other with the most deadly animosity, and no single party to be found with sense enough to stem the general torrent of rancour and factious suspicion.

Hampden was tried soon after, and as there was nothing to affect his life, he was fined forty thousand pounds. Hol- loway, a merchant of Bristol, who had fled to the West- Indies, was brought over, condemned, and executed. Sir Thomas Armstrong also, who had fled to Holland, was brought over, and shared the same fate. Lord Essex, who had been imprisoned in the Tower, was found in an apart- ment with his throat cut; but whether he was guilty of suicide, or whether the bigotry of the times might not have induced some assassin to commit the crime, cannot now be known. This was the last blood that was shed for an imputation of plots or conspiracies, which continued during the greatest part of this reign.

At this period the government of Charles was as absolute as that of any monarch in Europe; but his tyranny was but of short duration. He was seized with a sudden fit which resembled an apoplexy; and though he was recovered by bleeding, yet he languished only for a few days, and then expired, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty- fifth of his reign. During his illness some clergymen of the church of England attended him, to whom he discovered a total indifference. Catholic priests were brought to his bed-side, and from their hands he received the rites of their communion.

## CHAPTER XXXI.

JAMES II. — A. D. 1685—1689.

THE duke of York, who succeeded his brother by the title of king James the Second, had been bred a papist by his mother, and was strongly bigoted to his principles. He went openly to mass with all the ensigns of his dignity, and even sent one Caryl as his agent to Rome to make submis- sions to the pope, and to pave the way for the readmission of England into the bosom of the catholic church. A con- spiracy, set on foot by the duke of Monmouth, was the first disturbance in his reign. He had, since his last conspiracy, been banished, but was ordered to depart the kingdom, and had re- turned to Holland. Being displaced from thence by the prince of Orange upon James's accession, he went to Brus-

sels, where finding himself still pursued by the king's severity, he resolved to retaliate, and make an attempt upon the kingdom. He had even been the darling of the people, and some averred that Charles had married his mother, and owned Monmouth's legitimacy at his death. The duke of Argyle seconded his views in Scotland, and they formed the scheme of a double insurrection; so that while Monmouth should attempt to make a rising in the West, Argyle was also to try his endeavours in the North.

A. D. Argyle was the first who landed in Scotland, where  
1655. he published his manifestoes, put himself at the head of two thousand five hundred men, and strove to influence the people in his cause, but a formidable body of the king's forces coming against him, his army fell away, and he himself, after being wounded in attempting to escape, was taken prisoner by a peasant, who found him standing up to his neck in a pool of water. He was from thence carried to Edinburgh, where, after enduring many indignities with a gallant spirit, he was publicly executed.

Meanwhile Monmouth was by this time landed in Dorsetshire, with scarce a hundred followers. However his name was so popular, and so great was the hatred of the people both for the person and religion of James, that in four days he had assembled a body of above two thousand men. Being advanced to Taunton, his numbers had increased to six thousand men; and he was obliged every day, for want of arms, to dismiss numbers, who crowded to his standard. He entered Bridgewater, Wells, and Frome, and was proclaimed in all those places; but he lost the hour of action, in receiving and claiming these empty honours.

The king was not a little alarmed at this invasion; but still more at the success of an undertaking that at first appeared desperate. Six regiments of British troops were recalled from Holland, and a body of regulars, to the number of three thousand men, were sent, under the command of the earl of Feversham and Churchill, to check the progress of the rebels. They took post at Sedgemore, a village in the neighbourhood of Bridgewater, and were joined by the militia of the country in considerable numbers. It was there that Monmouth resolved, by a desperate effort, to lose his life or gain the kingdom. The negligent disposition made by Feversham invited him to the attack; and his faithful fol-



lowers showed what courage and principle could do against discipline and superior numbers. They drove the royal infantry from their ground, and were upon the point of gaining the victory, when the misconduct of Monmouth, and the cowardice of lord Gray, who commanded the horse, brought all to ruin. This nobleman fled at the first onset; and the rebels being charged in flank by the victorious army, gave way, after a three hours' contest. About three hundred were killed in the engagement, and a thousand in the pursuit; and thus ended an enterprise, rashly begun, and more feebly conducted.

Monmouth fled from the field of battle above twenty miles, till his horse sunk under him. He then alighted, and exchanging clothes with a shepherd, fled on foot, attended by a German count, who had accompanied him from Holland. Being quite exhausted with hunger and fatigue, they both lay down in a field, and covered themselves with fern. The shepherd being found in Monmouth's clothes by the pursuers, increased the diligence of the search; and by the means of bloodhounds, he was detected in this miserable situation, with raw pease in his pocket, which he had gathered in the fields to sustain life. He burst into tears when seized by his enemies; and petitioned, with the most abject submission, for life. He wrote the most submissive letters to the king; and that monarch, willing to feast his eyes with the miseries of a fallen enemy, gave him an audience. At this interview the duke fell upon his knees, and begged his life in the most abject terms. He even signed a paper, offered him by the king, declaring his own illegitimacy; and then the stern tyrant assured him, that his crime was of such a nature as could not be pardoned. The duke perceiving that he had nothing to hope from the clemency of his uncle, recollected his spirits, rose up, and retired with an air of disdain. He was followed to the scaffold with great compassion from the populace. He turned the executioner not to fall into the same error which he had committed in beheading Rabel, where it had been necessary to redouble the blow. But this only increased the severity of the punishment; the man was seized with an universal trepidation, and he struck a feeble blow, upon which the duke raised his head from the block, as if to reproach him; he gently laid down his head a second time,

and the executioner struck him again and again to no purpose. He at last threw the axe down; but the sheriff compelled him to resume the attempt, and at two blows more the head was severed from the body. Such was the end of James, duke of Monmouth, the darling of the English people. He was brave, sincere, and goodnatured, open to flattery, and by that seduced into an enterprise which exceeded his capacity.

But it were well for the insurgents, and fortunate for the king, if the blood that was now shed had been thought a sufficient expiation for the late offence. The victorious army behaved with the most savage cruelty to the prisoners taken after the battle. Feversham, immediately after the victory, hanged up above twenty prisoners. But the military severities of the commanders were still inferior to the legal slaughters, committed by judge Jeffries, who was sent down to try the delinquents. The natural brutality of this man's temper was inflamed by continual intoxication. He told the prisoners, that if they would save him the trouble of trying them, they might expect some favour, otherwise he would execute the law upon them with the utmost severity. Many poor wretches were thus allured into a confession, and found that it only hastened their destruction. No less than eighty were executed at Dorchester; and on the whole, at Exeter, Taunton, and Wells, two hundred and fifty-one are computed to have fallen by the hands of justice.

In ecclesiastical matters James proceeded with still greater injustice. Among those who distinguished themselves against popery was one doctor Sharpe, a clergyman of London, who declaimed with just severity against those who had changed their religion, by such arguments as the popish missionaries were able to produce. This being supposed to reflect upon the king, gave great offence at court; and positive orders were given to the bishop of London to suspend Sharpe, till his majesty's pleasure should be farther known. The bishop refused to comply; and the king resolved to punish the bishop himself for disobedience. To effect his design, an ecclesiastical commission was issued out, by which seven commissioners were invested with a full and unlimited authority over the whole church of Eng-

land. Before this tribunal the bishop was summoned, and not only he, but Sharpe, the preacher, was suspended.

The next step was to allow a liberty of conscience to all sectaries; and he was taught to believe, that the truth of the catholic religion would then, upon a fair trial, gain the victory. He therefore issued a declaration of general indulgence, and asserted, that nonconformity to the established religion was no longer penal. And to complete his work, he publicly sent the earl of Castlemain ambassador extraordinary to Rome, in order to express his obedience to the pope, and to reconcile his kingdoms to the catholic communion. Never was there so much contempt thrown upon an embassy that was so boldly undertaken. The court of Rome expected but little success from measures so blindly conducted. They were sensible that the king was openly striking at those laws and opinions which it was his business to undermine in silence and security.

The Jesuits soon after were permitted to erect colleges in different parts of the kingdom; they exercised the catholic worship in the most public manner; and four catholic bishops, consecrated in the king's chapel, were sent through the kingdom to exercise their episcopal functions, under the title of apostolic vicars. Father Francis, a Benedictine monk, was recommended by the king to the university of Cambridge, for the degree of master of arts. But his religion was a stumbling-block which the university could not get over; and they presented a petition, beseeching the king to recall his mandate. Their petition was disregarded, their deputies denied a hearing; the vice-chancellor himself was summoned to appear before the high-commission court, and deprived of his office; yet, the university persisted, and father Francis was refused. The place of president of Magdalen-college, Oxford, one of the richest foundations in Europe, being vacant, the king sent a mandate in favour of one Farmer, a new convert of popery, and a man of bad character in other respects. The fellows of the college made very submissive applications to the king for recalling his mandate; they refused admitting the candidate, and James finding them resolute in the defence of their privileges, ejected them all except two.

A second declaration for liberty of conscience was pub-

lished almost in the same terms with the former; but with this peculiar injunction, that all divines <sup>A. D.</sup> should read it after service in their churches. <sup>1688.</sup> The clergy were known universally to disapprove of these measures, and they were now resolved to disobey an order dictated by the most bigoted motives. The first champions on this service of danger were Lloyd, bishop of St. Asaph; Kenn, of Bath and Wells; Turner, of Ely; Lake, of Chichester; White, of Peterborough; and Trelawney, of Bristol; these, together with Sancroft, the primate, concerted an address, in the form of a petition, to the king, purporting that they could not read his declaration consistent with their consciences, or the respect they owed the protestant religion. The king in a fury summoned the bishops before the council, and there questioned them whether they would acknowledge their petition. They for some time declined giving an answer, but being urged by the chancellor, they at last owned it. On their refusal to give bail, an order was immediately drawn for their commitment to the Tower, and the crown-lawyers received directions to prosecute them for a seditious libel.

The twenty-ninth day of June was fixed for their trial; and their return was more splendidly attended than their imprisonment. The cause was looked upon as involving the state of the nation; and future freedom or future slavery, awaited the decision. The dispute was learnedly managed by the lawyers on both sides. Holloway and Powel, two of the judges, declared themselves in favour of the bishops. The jury withdrew into the chamber, where they passed the whole night; but the next morning they returned into court, and pronounced the bishops not guilty. Westminster-Hall instantly rang with loud acclamations, which were communicated to the whole extent of the city. They even reached the camp at Hounslow, where the king was at dinner, in lord Feversham's tent. His majesty demanding the cause of those rejoicings, and being informed that it was nothing but the soldiers shouting at the delivery of the bishops, "Call you that nothing," cried he; "but so much the worse for them!"

It was in this posture of affairs that all people turned their eyes upon William, prince of Orange, who had married Mary, the eldest daughter of king James. William was a

prince who had, from his earliest entrance into business been immersed in dangers, calamities, and politics. The ambition of France, and the jealousies of Holland, A. D. had served to sharpen his talents, and to give him 1688. a propensity to intrigue, and he now plainly saw that James had incurred the most violent hatred of his subjects. He was minutely informed of their discontents, and, by seeming to discourage, still farther increased them, hoping to gain the kingdom for himself in the sequel.

The time when the prince entered upon his enterprise, was just when the people were in a flame upon this recent insult offered to their bishops. He had before this made considerable augmentations to the Dutch fleet, and the ships were then lying ready in the harbour. Some additional troops were also levied; and sums of money, raised for other purposes, were converted to the advancement of this expedition. So well concerted were his measures, that in three days above four hundred transports were hired; the army fell down the rivers and canals from Nimeguen, with all necessary stores, and the prince set sail from Helvoetsluys with a fleet of near five hundred vessels, and an army of above fourteen thousand men.

It was given out that this invasion was intended for the coasts of France; and many of the English who saw the fleet pass along their coasts, little expected to see it land on their own shores. Thus, after a voyage of two days, the prince landed his army at the village of Broxholme, in Torbay, on the fifth of November, which was the anniversary of the gunpowder-treason. But though the invitation from the English was very general, the prince, for some time, had the mortification to find himself joined by very few. He marched first to Exeter, where the country people had been so lately terrified with the executions which had ensued on Monmouth's rebellion, that they continued to observe a strict neutrality. He remained for ten days in expectation of being joined by the malcontents, and at last began to despair of success. But just when he began to deliberate about reembarking his forces, he was joined by several persons of consequence, and soon after the whole country came flocking to his standard. The nobility, clergy, officers, and even the king's own servants and creatures, were unanimous in deserting James. Lord Churchill

had been raised from the rank of a page, and had been invested with a high command in the army; had been created a peer, and owed his whole fortune to the king's bounty: even he deserted among the rest, and carried with him the duke of Grafton, natural son to the late king, colonel Berkeley, and some others.

The prince of Denmark, and Ann, his favourite daughter, perceiving the desperation of his circumstances, resolved to leave him, and take part with the prevailing side. When he was told, that the prince and princess had followed the rest of his favourites, he was stung with the most bitter anguish. "God help me!" cried he, in the extremity of his agony, "my own children have forsaken me!" Alarmed every day more and more with the prospect of a general disaffection, he resolved to hearken to those who advised his quitting the kingdom, and first sending away the queen, who arrived safely at Calais, he himself soon after disappeared in the night-time, attended only by sir Edward Hales, a new convert, but was discovered and brought back by the mob.

But, shortly after, being confined at Rochester, and observing that he was entirely neglected by his own subjects, he resolved to seek safety from the king of France, the only friend he had still remaining. He accordingly fled to the seaside, attended by his natural son the duke of Berwick, where he embarked for the continent, and arrived in safety at Ambleteuse, in Picardy, from whence he hastened to the court of France, where he still enjoyed the empty title of a king, and the appellation of a saint, which flattered him more.

The king having thus abdicated the throne, the next consideration was the appointing a successor. A. D. 1689. Some declared for a regent; others, that the princess of Orange should be invested with regal power, and the young prince considered as supposititious. After a long debate in both houses, a new sovereign was preferred to a regent, by a majority of two voices. It was agreed, that the prince and princess of Orange should reign jointly as king and queen of England, while the administration of government should be placed in the hands of the prince only.

## CHAPTER XXXII.

WILLIAM III.—A. D. 1689—1702.

WILLIAM was no sooner elected to the throne, than he began to experience the difficulty of governing a people, who were more ready to examine the commands of their superiors than to obey them. His reign commenced with an attempt similar to that which had been the principal cause of all the disturbances in the preceding reign, and which had excluded the monarch from the throne. William was a Calvinist, and consequently averse to persecution; he naturally began by attempting to repeal those laws that enjoined uniformity of worship: and though he could not entirely succeed, a toleration was granted to such dissenters as should take the oaths of allegiance, and hold no private conventicles.

In the mean time James, whose authority was still acknowledged in Ireland, embarked at Brest for that kingdom, and on May 22, arrived at Kinsale. He soon after made his public entry into Dublin, and found the appearance of things in that country equal to his most sanguine expectations. Tyrconnel, the lord-lieutenant, was devoted to his interests; his old army was steady, and a new one raised, amounting together to near forty thousand men.

As soon as the season would permit, he went to lay siege to Londonderry, a town of small importance in itself, but rendered famous by the stand which it made on this occasion. The besieged endured the most poignant sufferings from fatigue and famine, until at last relieved by a store-ship, that happily broke the boom laid across the river to prevent a supply. The joy of the inhabitants at this unexpected relief, was only equalled by the rage and disappointment of the besiegers. The army of James was so disappointed by this enterprise, that they abandoned the siege in the night, and retired with precipitation, after having lost above nine thousand men before the place.

A. D. 1690. It was upon the opposite banks of the river Boyne that both armies came in sight of each other. The river at this place was not so deep but that men might wade over on foot; but the banks were rugged, and

rendered dangerous by old houses and ditches, which served to defend the latent enemy. While William, who headed the protestant army, was riding along the side of the river, in sight of both armies, to make proper observations upon the plan of battle, being perceived by the enemy, a cannon was privately brought out and fired. The shot killed several of his followers, and he himself was wounded in the shoulder.

Early the next morning, at six o'clock, king William gave orders to force a pass over the river. This the army undertook in three different places; and after a furious cannonading, the battle began with unusual vigour. The Irish troops, after an obstinate resistance, fled with precipitation, leaving the French and Swiss regiments, who came to their assistance, to make the best retreat they could. William led on his horse in person, and contributed by his activity and vigilance to secure the victory. James was not in the battle, but stood aloof, during the action, on the hill of Dunmore, surrounded with some squadrons of horse, and at intervals was heard to exclaim, when he saw his own troops repulsing those of the enemy, "O spare my English subjects." The Irish lost about fifteen hundred men, and the Protestants about one-third of that number. The victory was splendid, and almost decisive; but the death of the duke of Schomberg, who was shot as he was crossing the water, seemed to outweigh the whole loss sustained by the enemy.

The last battle fought in favour of James was at Aughrim. The enemy fought with surprising fury, <sup>A. D. 1691.</sup> and the horse were several times repulsed; but the English wading through the middle of a bog, up to the waist in mud, and rallying with some difficulty on the firm ground on the other side, renewed the combat with great fury. St. Ruth, the Irish general, being killed by a cannon-ball, his troops gave way on all sides, and retreated to Limerick, where they resolved to make a final stand, after having lost above five thousand of the flower of their army. Limerick, the last retreat of the Irish forces, made a brave defence, but soon seeing the enemy advanced within ten paces of the bridge-foot, and perceiving themselves surrounded on all sides, they determined to capitulate; a negotiation was immediately begun, and hostilities ceased



on both sides. The Roman Catholics, by this capitulation, were restored to the enjoyment of those liberties in the exercise of their religion, which they had possessed in the reign of king Charles the Second. All persons were indulged with free leave to remove, with their families and effects, to any other country, except England and Scotland. In consequence of this, about fourteen thousand of those who had fought for king James went over into France, having transports provided by government for conveying them thither.

A. D. James was now reduced to the lowest ebb of de-  
 1692. spondence; his designs upon England were quite frustrated, so that nothing was left his friends, but the hopes of assassinating the monarch upon the throne. These base attempts, as barbarous as they were useless, were not entirely disagreeable to the temper of James. It is said he encouraged and proposed them, but they only ended in the destruction of the undertakers. From that time, till he died, which was about seven years, he continued to reside at St. Germain's, a pensioner on the bounties of Lewis, and assisted by occasional liberalities from his daughter and friends in England. He died on the sixteenth day of September, in the year 1700, after having laboured under a tedious sickness; and many miracles, as the people thought, were wrought at his tomb. Indeed, the latter part of his life was calculated to inspire the superstitious with reverence for his piety; he subjected himself to acts of uncommon penance and mortification; he frequently visited the poor monks of La Trappe, who were edified by his humble and pious deportment. His pride and arbitrary temper seemed to have vanished with his greatness; he became affable, kind, and easy to all his dependents; and in his last illness conjured his son to prefer religion to every worldly advantage, a counsel which that prince strictly obeyed. He died with great marks of devotion, and was interred, at his own request, in the church of the English Benedictines at Paris, without any funeral solemnity.

William, upon accepting of the crown, was resolved to preserve that share of prerogative which was still left him; but at length he became fatigued with opposing the laws which parliament every day were laying round his authority, and gave up the contest. He admitted every

restraint upon the prerogative in England, upon condition of being properly supplied with the means of humbling the power of France. War, and the balance of power in Europe, were all he knew, or, indeed, desired to understand: provided the parliament furnished him with supplies for these purposes, he permitted them to rule the internal polity at their pleasure. For the prosecution of the war with France, the nation, not contented with furnishing him such sums of money as they were capable of raising by the taxes of the year, mortgaged these taxes, and involved themselves in what is now called the national debt. England received in return the empty reward of military glory in Flanders, and the consciousness of having given their allies, particularly the Dutch, frequent opportunities of being ungrateful.

The war with France continued during the greatest part of this king's reign; but at length the treaty of Ryswic put an end to those contentions, in which England had engaged without policy, and came off without advantage. In the general pacification, her interests seemed entirely deserted; and for all the treasures she had sent to the continent, and all the blood which she had shed there, the only equivalent she received was, an acknowledgment of king William's title from the king of France. A. D.  
1697.

William was naturally of a very feeble constitution, and it was by this time almost exhausted by a series of continual disquietude and action. He had endeavoured to repair his constitution, or, at least, to conceal its decays, by exercise and riding. On the twenty-first day of February, in riding to Hampton-court from Kensington, his horse fell under him, and he was thrown with such violence that his collar-bone was fractured. His attendants conveyed him to the palace of Hampton-court, where the fracture was reduced, and in the evening he returned to Kensington in his coach. The jolting of the carriage disunited the fracture once more, and the bones were again replaced under Bidloo, his physician. This, in a robust constitution, would have been a trifling misfortune; but in him it was fatal. For some time he appeared in a fair way of recovery; but falling asleep on his couch, he was seized with a shivering, which terminated in a fever and diarrhœa, which soon became dangerous and

desperate. Perceiving his end approaching, the objects of his former care lay still next his heart, and the fate of Europe seemed to remove the sensations he might be supposed to feel for his own. The earl of Albemarle arriving from Holland, he conferred with him in private on the posture of affairs abroad, and two days after, he expired in the fifty-second year of his age, after having reigned thirteen years.

## CHAPTER XXXIII.

ANNE.—A. D. 1702—1714.

ANNE, married to prince George of Denmark, ascended the throne in the thirty-eighth year of her age, to the general satisfaction of all parties. She was the second daughter of king James, by his first wife, the daughter of chancellor Hyde, afterwards earl of Clarendon. Upon coming to the crown, she determined to declare war against France, and communicated her intention to the house of commons, by whom it was approved. And was seconded by similar declarations by the Dutch and Germans, all on the same day. The French monarch could not suppress his anger at such a combination, but his chief resentment fell upon the Dutch. He declared, with great emotion, that as for those gentleman-pedlars, the Dutch, they should one day repent their insolence and presumption, in declaring war against one, whose power they had formerly felt and dreaded. However, the affairs of the allies were no way influenced by his threats. The duke of Marlborough had his views gratified, in being appointed general of the English forces, and he was still farther flattered by the Dutch, who, though the earl of Athlone had a right to share the command, appointed Marlborough generalissimo of the allied army. And it must be confessed, that few men shone more, either in debate or action, than he; serene in the midst of danger, and indefatigable in the cabinet; so that he became the most formidable enemy to France that England had produced since the conquering times of Cressy and Agincourt.

A great part of the history of this reign consists in battles

fought upon the continent, which, though of very little advantage to the interests of the nation, were very great additions to its honour. These triumphs, it is true, are passed away, and nothing remains of them but the names of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, where the allied army gained decisive victories. But a conquest of much greater national importance was gained with less expense of blood and treasure in Spain. The ministry of England understanding that the French were employed in equipping a strong squadron in Brest, sent out sir Cloudesly Shovel and sir George Rooke to watch their motions. Sir George, however, had farther orders to convoy a body of forces in transport-ships to Barcelona, upon which a fruitless attack was made by the prince of Hesse. Finding no hopes, therefore, from this expedition, in two days the troops were re-embarked, and sir George Rooke, joined by sir Cloudesly, called a council of war on board the fleet, as they lay off the coast of Africa. In this they resolved to make an attempt upon Gibraltar, a city then belonging to the Spaniards, at that time ill-provided with a garrison, as neither expecting nor fearing such an attempt.

The town of Gibraltar stands upon a tongue of land, as the mariners call it, and defended by a rock inaccessible on every side but one. The prince of Hesse landed his troops to the number of eighteen hundred, on the continent adjoining, and summoned the town to surrender, but without effect. Next day the admiral gave orders for cannonading the town; and perceiving that the enemy were driven from their fortifications, at a place called the South Mole-head, ordered captain Whitaker to arm all the boats and assault that quarter. Those officers who happened to be nearest the Mole immediately manned their boats without orders, and entered the fortification sword in hand. But they were premature, for the Spaniards sprung a mine, by which two lieutenants and about one hundred men were killed and wounded. Nevertheless, the two captains, Hicks and Jumper, took possession of a platform, and kept their ground, until they were sustained by captain Whitaker, and the rest of the seamen, who took a redoubt between the Mole and the town by storm. Then the governor capitulated, and the prince of Hesse entered the place, amazed at the success of the attempt, considering the strength of the

fortifications. When the news of this conquest was brought to England, it was for some time in debate whether it was a capture worth thanking the admiral for. It was at last considered as unworthy public gratitude; and while the duke of Marlborough was extolled for useless services, sir George Rooke was left to neglect, and soon displaced from his command, for having so essentially served his country. A striking instance, that even in the most enlightened age popular applause is most usually misplaced. Gibraltar has ever since remained in the possession of the English, and continues of the utmost use in refitting that part of the navy destined to annoy an enemy, or protect our trade in the Mediterranean.

While the English were thus victorious by land and sea, a new scene of contention was opened on the side of Spain, where the ambition of the European princes exerted itself with the same fury that had filled the rest of the continent. Philip the Fourth, grandson of Lewis the Fourteenth, had been placed upon the throne of that kingdom, and had been received with the joyful concurrence of the greatest part of his subjects. He had also been nominated successor to that crown by the late king of Spain's will. But in a former treaty among the powers of Europe, Charles, son of the emperor of Germany, was appointed heir to that crown; and this treaty had been guaranteed by France herself, though she now resolved to reverse that consent in favour of a descendant of the house of Bourbon. Charles was still farther led on to put in for the crown of Spain by the invitation of the Catalonians, who declared in his favour, and by the assistance of the English and the Portuguese, who promised to arm in his cause. He was furnished with two hundred transports, thirty ships of war, and nine thousand men, for the conquest of that extensive empire. But the earl of Peterborough, a man of romantic bravery, offered to conduct them; and his single service was thought equivalent to armies.

The earl of Peterborough was one of the most singular and extraordinary men of the age in which he lived. When yet but fifteen he fought against the Moors in Africa; at twenty he assisted at compassing the Revolution, and he now carried on the war in Spain almost at his own expense; his friendship for the duke Charles being one of his chief

motives to this great undertaking. He was deformed in his person, but of a mind the most generous, honourable, and active. His first attempt upon landing in Spain was the taking Barcelona, a strong city, with a garrison of five thousand men, while his own army amounted to little more than nine thousand.

These successes, however, were but of short continuance, Peterborough being recalled, and the army under Charles being commanded by the lord Galway. This nobleman having received intelligence that the enemy, under the command of the duke of Berwick, was posted near the town of Almanza, he advanced thither to give them battle. The conflict began about two in the afternoon, and the whole front of each army was fully engaged. The centre, consisting chiefly of battalions from Great Britain and Holland, seemed at first victorious; but the Portuguese horse, by whom they were supported, betaking themselves to flight on the first charge, the English troops were flanked and surrounded on every side. In this dreadful emergency, they formed themselves into a square, and retired to an eminence, where, being ignorant of the country, and destitute of all supplies, they were obliged to surrender prisoners of war, to the number of ten thousand men. This victory was complete and decisive; and all Spain, except the province of Catalonia, returned to their duty to Philip their sovereign.

The councils of the queen had hitherto been governed by a Whig ministry; for though the duke of Marlborough had first started in the Tory interest, he soon joined the opposite faction, as he found them most sincere in their desires to humble the power of France. The Whigs, therefore, still pursued the schemes of the late king; and strove to humble despotism in every part of Europe. In a government where the reasoning of individuals, retired from power, generally leads those who command, the designs of the ministry must alter as the people happen to change. The people in fact were beginning to change. But previous to the disgrace of the Whig ministry, whose fall was now hastening, a measure of the greatest importance took place in parliament; the union between the two kingdoms of England and Scotland; which, though they were governed by one sovereign since the accession of James the First, yet were still ruled by their

respective parliaments, and often pursued opposite interests and different designs.

The attempt for an union began at the commencement of this reign; but some disputes arising relative to the trade to the East, the conference was broke up, and it was thought that an adjustment would be impossible. It was revived by an act in either parliament, granting power to commissioners named on the part of both nations, to treat on the preliminary articles of an union, which should afterwards undergo a more thorough discussion by the legislative body of both kingdoms. The choice of these commissioners was left to the queen; and she took care that none should be employed, but such as heartily wished to promote so desirable a measure. The commissioners met in the council-chamber of the Cockpit, near Whitehall, which was the place appointed for their conferences. As the queen frequently exhorted them to despatch, the articles of this famous union were soon agreed to, and signed, and it only remained to lay them before the parliaments of both nations.

In this famous treaty it was stipulated, that the succession to the united kingdoms should be vested in the house of Hanover; that the united kingdoms should be represented by one and the same parliament; that all the subjects of Great Britain should enjoy a communication of privileges and advantages; that they should have the same allowances and privileges with respect to the commerce and customs; that the laws concerning public right, civil government, and policy, should be the same throughout the two united kingdoms; but that no alteration should be made in laws which concerned private right, except for the evident benefit of the subjects of Scotland; that the courts of session, and all other courts of judicature in Scotland, should remain as then constituted by the laws of that kingdom, with the same authority and privileges as before the union; that Scotland should be represented in the parliament of Great Britain by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners, to be elected in such a manner as should be settled by the present parliament of Scotland: that all peers of Scotland should be considered as peers of Great Britain, and rank immediately after the English peers of the like degree, at the time of the union, and before such as should be created

after it; that they should enjoy all the privileges of English peers, except that of sitting and voting in parliament, or sitting upon the trial of peers; that all the insignia of royalty and government should remain as they were; that all laws and statutes in either kingdom, so far as they might be inconsistent with the terms of these articles, should cease, and be declared void by the respective parliaments of the two kingdoms. These were the principal articles of the union; and it only remained to obtain the sanction of the legislature of both kingdoms to give them authority.

The arguments in these different assemblies were suited to the audience. To induce the Scottish parliament to come into the measure, it was alleged that an entire and perfect union would be the solid foundation of a lasting peace. It would secure their religion, liberty, and property, remove the animosities that prevailed among themselves, and the jealousies that subsisted between the two nations. It would increase their strength, riches, and commerce; the whole island would be joined in affection, and freed from all apprehensions of different interests. It would be enabled to resist all its enemies, support the protestant interests, and maintain the liberties of Europe. It was observed, that the less the wheels of government were clogged by a multiplicity of councils, the more vigorous would be their exertions. They were shown that the taxes which in consequence of this union they were to pay, were by no means so proportionably great as their share in the legislature. That their taxes did not amount to a seventieth part of those supplied by the English: and yet their share in the legislature was not a tenth part less. Such were the arguments in favour of the union, addressed to the Scottish parliament. In the English houses it was observed, that a powerful and dangerous nation would thus for ever be prevented from giving them any disturbance; that, in case of any future rupture, England had every thing to lose and nothing to gain against a nation that was courageous and poor.

On the other hand, the Scots were fired with indignation at the thoughts of losing their ancient and independent government. The nobility found themselves degraded in point of dignity and influence, by being excluded from their seats in parliament. The trading part of the nation



beheld their commerce loaded with heavy duties, and considered their new privilege of trading to the English plantations in the West Indies as a very uncertain advantage. In the English houses, also, it was observed, that the union of a rich with a poor nation would always be beneficial to the latter, and that the former could only hope for a participation of their necessities. It was said that the Scots reluctantly yielded to this coalition, and that it might be likened to a marriage with a woman against her consent. It was supposed to be an union made up of so many unmatched pieces, and such incongruous ingredients, that it could never take effect. It was complained, that the proportion of the land-tax paid by the Scots was small, and unequal to the share in the legislature. At length, notwithstanding all opposition made by the Tories, every article of the union was approved by a great majority in both parliaments. Thus all were obliged to acquiesce in an union of which they at first had not sagacity to distinguish the advantages.

In the mean time the Whig ministry was every day declining. Among the number of those whom the duchess of Marlborough had introduced to the queen, to contribute to her private amusement, was one Mrs. Masham, her own kinswoman, whom she had raised from indigence and obscurity. The duchess having gained the ascendant over the queen, became petulant and insolent, and relaxed in those arts by which she had risen. Mrs. Masham, who had her fortune to make, was more humble and assiduous; she flattered the foibles of the queen, and assented to her prepossessions and prejudices. She soon saw the queen's inclination to the Tory set of opinions, their divine right, and passive obedience; and, instead of attempting to thwart her, as the duchess had done, she joined in with her partiality, and even outwent her in her own way. This lady was, in fact, the tool of Mr. Harley, secretary of state, who also some time before had insinuated himself into the queen's good graces, and who determined to sap the credit of the Whig ministers. His aim was to unite the Tory interest under his own shelter, and to expel the Whigs from the advantages which they had long enjoyed under government. In his career of ambition he chose for his coadjutor Henry St. John; afterwards the famous lord Bolingbroke; a man of

great eloquence, and greater ambition, enterprising, restless, active, and haughty, with some wit, and little principle. To this Junto was added sir Simon Harcourt, a lawyer, a man of great abilities.

It was now perceived, that the people themselves began to be weary of the Whig ministry, whom they formerly caressed. To them they imputed the burdens under which they groaned, and which they had been hitherto animated to bear by the pomp of triumphs. Harley, afterwards known by the title of lord Oxford, was at the bottom of these complaints: and though they produced a growing and steady operation, at length the Whig part of the ministry opened their eyes to the intrigues of the Tories, but they had entirely lost the confidence of the queen. Harley soon threw off the mask of friendship, and took more vigorous measures for the prosecution of his designs. In him the queen reposed all her trust, though he had now no visible concern in the administration. The first triumph of the Tories, in which the queen discovered a public partiality in their favour, was seen in a transaction of no great importance in itself, but from the consequences it produced. The parties of the nation were eager to engage, and they wanted but the watchword to begin. This was given by a man, neither of abilities, property, nor power, but accidentally brought forward on this occasion.

Henry Sacheverel was a clergyman bred at Oxford, of narrow intellects, and an over-heated imagination. He had acquired some popularity among those who had distinguished themselves by the name of high-churchmen, and had taken all occasions to vent his animosity against the dissenters. At the summer assizes at Derby he held forth in that strain before the judges. On the fifth of November, in St. Paul's church, he, in a violent declamation, defended the doctrine of nonresistance, inveighed against the toleration of dissenters, declared the church was dangerously attacked by its enemies, and slightly defended by its false friends. Sir Samuel Gerrard, lord-mayor, countenanced this harangue, which, though very weak both in the matter and style, was published under his protection, and extolled by the Tories as a masterpiece of writing.

Mr. Dolben, son to the archbishop of York, laid a complaint before the house of commons against these rhapsodies,

and thus gave force to what would have soon been forgotten. The most violent paragraphs were read, and the sermons voted scandalous and seditious libels. Sacheverel was brought to the bar of the house; and he, far from disowning the writing of them, gloried in what he had done, and mentioned the encouragement he had received to publish them from the lord-mayor, who was then present. Being ordered to withdraw, it was resolved to impeach him of high crimes and misdemeanours at the bar of the house of lords; and Mr. Dolben was fixed upon to conduct the prosecution, in the name of the commons of all England. A committee was appointed to draw up articles of impeachment; Sacheverel was taken into custody, and a day was appointed for his trial before the lords in Westminster-hall.

The eyes of the whole kingdom were turned upon this very extraordinary trial, which lasted three weeks, and excluded all other public business for the time. The queen herself was every day present as a private spectator, while vast multitudes attended the culprit each day as he went to the hall, shouting as he passed, or silently praying for his success. The managers for the commons were sir Joseph Jekyl, Mr. Eyre, solicitor-general, sir Peter King, recorder, general Stanhope, sir Thomas Parker, and Mr. Walpole. The doctor was defended by sir Simon Harcourt and Mr. Phipps, and assisted by doctor Atterbury, doctor Smallridge, and doctor Friend. While the trial continued, nothing could exceed the violence and outrage of the populace. They surrounded the queen's sedan, exclaiming, "God bless your majesty and the church, we hope your majesty is for doctor Sacheverel." They destroyed several meeting-houses, plundered the dwellings of many eminent dissenters, and even proposed to attack the bank. The queen, in compliance with the request of the commons, published a proclamation for suppressing the tumults: and several persons being apprehended, were tried for high-treason. Two were convicted, and sentenced to die, but neither suffered.

When the commons had gone through their charge, the managers for Sacheverel undertook his defence with great art and eloquence. He afterwards recited a speech himself, which, from the difference between it and his sermons, seems evidently the work of another. In this he solemnly

justified his intentions towards the queen and her government. He spoke in the most respectful terms of the Revolution, and the protestant succession. He maintained the doctrine of nonresistance as a tenet of the church, in which he was brought up ; and in a pathetic conclusion endeavoured to excite the pity of his audience. At length he was found guilty by a majority of seventeen voices ; but no less than four and thirty peers entered a protest against this decision. He was prohibited from preaching for three years, and his two sermons were ordered to be burned by the common hangman, in the presence of the lord-mayor and the two sheriffs. The lenity of this sentence, which was, in a great measure, owing to the dread of popular resentment, was considered by the Tories as a triumph, and now the queen thought proper to summon a new parliament, and being a friend to the Tories herself, she gave the people an opportunity of indulging themselves in choosing representatives to their mind. In fact, very few were returned but such as had distinguished themselves in their zeal against the Whig administration.

In the meantime the campaign in Flanders was conducted with the most brilliant success. The duke of Marlborough had every motive to continue the war, as it gratified not only his ambition, but his avarice ; a passion that obscured his shining abilities. The king of France appeared extremely desirous of a peace, and resolved to solicit a conference. He employed one Petkum, resident of the duke of Holstein at the Hague, to negotiate upon this subject ; and he ventured also to solicit the duke himself in private. A conference was at length begun at Gertruydenburgh, under the influence of Marlborough, Eugene, and Zinzendorf, who were all three, from private motives, entirely averse to the treaty. Upon this occasion, the French ministers were subjected to every species of mortification. Spies were placed upon all their conduct. Their master was insulted, and their letters were opened ; till at last Lewis resolved to hazard another campaign.

It was only by insensible degrees that the queen seemed to acquire courage enough to second her inclinations, and depose a ministry that had long been disagreeable to her. Harley, who still shared her confidence, did not fail to inculcate the popularity, the justice, and the security of such

a measure ; and, in confidence of his advice, she began the changes by transferring the post of lord-chamberlain from the duke of Kent to the duke of Shrewsbury, who had lately voted with the Tories, and maintained an intimate correspondence with Mr. Harley. Soon after, the earl of Sunderland, secretary of state, and son-in-law to the duke of Marlborough, was displaced, and the earl of Dartmouth put in his room. The earl of Godolphin was divested of his office, and the treasury put in commission, subjected to the direction of Harley, who was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and under-treasurer. The earl of Rochester was declared president of the council in the room of lord Somers. The staff of lord-steward being taken from the duke of Devonshire, was given to the duke of Buckingham ; and Mr. Boyle was removed from the secretary's office to make way for Mr. Henry St. John. The lord-chancellor having resigned the great seal, it was first put in commission, and then given to sir Simon Harcourt. The earl of Wharton surrendered his commission as lord-lieutenant of Ireland ; and that employment was conferred upon the duke of Ormond. Mr. George Granville was appointed secretary at war, in the room of Mr. Robert Walpole ; and, in a word, there was not one Whig left in any office of the state except the duke of Marlborough.

But the triumph was not yet complete, until the parliament was brought to confirm and approve the queen's choice. The queen in her speech recommended the prosecution of the war with vigour. The parliament were ardent in their expressions of zeal and unanimity. They exhorted her to discountenance all such principles and measures, as had lately threatened her royal crown and dignity. This was but an opening to what soon after followed. The duke of Marlborough, who but a few months before had been so highly extolled and caressed by the representatives of the people, was now become the object of their hatred and reproach. His avarice was justly upbraided ; his protracting the war was said to arise from that motive. Instances were everywhere given of his fraud and extortion. These might be true, but party had no moderation, for even his courage and conduct were called in question. To mortify the duke still more, the thanks of the house of commons were voted to the earl of Peterborough for his services in Spain, while

they were refused to the duke for those in Flanders; and the lord-keeper, who delivered them to Peterborough, took occasion to drop some reflections against the mercenary disposition of his rival.

Nothing now, therefore, remained of the Whig system, upon which this reign was begun, but the war, which continued to rage as fierce as ever, and which increased in expense every year as it went on. It was the resolution of the present ministry to put an end to it at any rate, and it only remained to remove the duke of Marlborough from his post, as he would endeavour to traverse all their negotiations. But here again a difficulty started; this step could not be taken without giving offence to the Dutch, who placed entire confidence in him; they were obliged, therefore, to wait for some convenient occasion. Upon his return from this campaign, he was accused of having taken a bribe of six thousand pounds a-year from a Jew, who contracted to supply the army with bread; and the queen thought proper to dismiss him from all his employments. This was the pretext made use of, though his fall had been predetermined; and though his receiving such a bribe was not the real cause of his removal, yet candour must confess that it ought to have been so.

In the mean time Prior, much more famous as a poet than a statesman, was sent over with proposals to France; and Menager, a man of no great station, returned with Prior to London, with full powers to treat upon the preliminaries; but the great difficulty still was to make the terms of peace agreeable to all the confederates. The earl of Strafford, who had been lately recalled from the Hague, where he resided as ambassador, was now sent back to Holland with orders to communicate to the pensionary Heinsius, the preliminary proposals, to signify the queen's approbation of them, and to propose a place where the plenipotentiaries should assemble. The Dutch were very averse to begin the conference upon the inspection of the preliminaries. They sent over an envoy to attempt to turn the queen from her resolution; but finding their efforts vain, they fixed upon Utrecht as the place of general conference, and granted passports to the French ministers accordingly.

The conferences began at Utrecht under the conduct of Robinson bishop of Bristol, lord-privy-seal, and the earl

of Strafford, on the side of the English; of Buys and Vanderdussen on the part of the Dutch; and of the mareschal d'Uxelles, the cardinal Polignac, and M. Menager, in behalf of France. The ministers of the emperor and Savoy assisted, and the other allies sent also plenipotentiaries, though with the utmost reluctance. As England and France were the only two powers that were seriously inclined to peace, all the other deputies met only to start new difficulties and widen the breach. The English ministers, therefore, set on foot a private negotiation with France. They stipulated certain advantages for the subjects of Great Britain in a concerted plan of peace, and resolved to enter into such mutual confidence with the French as would anticipate all clandestine transactions to the prejudice of the coalition.

A. D. In the beginning of August, secretary St. John, 1712. who had been created lord viscount Bolingbroke, was sent to the court of Versailles to remove all obstructions to the separate treaty. He was accompanied by Mr. Prior and the abbé Gaultier, and treated with the most distinguished marks of respect. He was caressed by the French king, and the marquis de Torcy, with whom he adjusted the principal interests of the duke of Savoy and the elector of Bavaria. And at length the treaties of peace and commerce between England and France being agreed on by the plenipotentiaries on either side, and ratified by the queen, she acquainted her parliament of the steps she had taken.

The first stipulation of this famous treaty was, that Philip, now acknowledged king of Spain, should renounce all right to the crown of France, the union of two such powerful kingdoms being thought dangerous to the liberties of Europe. It was agreed, that the duke of Berry, Philip's brother, and after him in succession, should also renounce his right to the crown of Spain, in case he became king of France. It was stipulated, that the duke of Savoy should possess the island of Sicily, with the title of king, together with Fenestrelles, and other places on the continent, which increase of dominion was in some measure made out of the spoils of the French monarchy. The Dutch had that barrier granted them which they so long sought after; and if the crown of France was deprived of some dominions to enrich the duke of Savoy, on the other

hand, the house of Austria was taxed to supply the wants of the Hollanders, who were put in possession of the strongest towns in Flanders. With regard to England, its glory and its interests were secured. The fortifications of Dunkirk, an harbour that might be dangerous to their trade in time of war, were ordered to be demolished, and its port destroyed. Spain gave up all right to Gibraltar, and the island of Minorca. France resigned her pretensions to Hudson's-bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland: but they were left in possession of Cape Breton and the liberty of drying their fish upon the shore. Among these articles, glorious to the English nation, their setting free the French protestants confined in the prisons and galleys for their religion, was not the least meritorious. For the emperor, it was stipulated, that he should possess the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Spanish Netherlands. The king of Prussia was to have Upper Guelder; and a time was fixed for the emperor's acceding to those articles, as he had for some time obstinately refused to assist at the negotiation. Thus Europe seemed to be formed into one great republic, the different members of which were cantoned out to different governors, and the ambition of any one state amenable to the tribunal of all. The English ministry certainly did justice to all the world, but their country denied that justice to them.

But while the Whigs were attacking the Tory ministers from without, these were in much greater danger from their own internal dissensions. Lord Oxford and lord Bolingbroke, though they had started with the same principles and designs, yet having vanquished other opposers, now began to form separate interests, and to adopt different principles. Oxford's plan was the more moderate; Bolingbroke's the more vigorous, but the more secure. Oxford, it is thought, was entirely for the Hanoverian succession; Bolingbroke had some hopes of bringing in the Pretender. But though they hated each other most sincerely, yet they were for awhile kept together by the good offices of their friends and adherents, who had the melancholy prospect of seeing the citadel of their hopes, while openly besieged from without, secretly undermining within.

This was a mortifying prospect to the Tories; but it was more particularly displeasing to the queen, who daily saw



her favourite ministry declining, while her own health was now quite broken. One fit of sickness succeeded another; and was heightened by the anxiety of her mind. These dissensions had such an effect upon her spirits and constitution, that she declared she could not outlive it, and immediately sunk into a state of lethargic insensibility. Notwithstanding all the medicines which the physicians could prescribe, the distemper gained ground so fast, that they despaired of her life, and the privy-council was assembled on the occasion.

All the members, without distinction, being summoned from the different parts of the kingdom, began to provide for the security of the constitution. They sent a letter to the elector of Hanover, informing him of the queen's desperate situation, and desiring him to repair to Holland, where he would be attended by a British squadron to convey him to England. At the same time they despatched instructions to the earl of Strafford at the Hague, to desire the states-general to be ready to perform the guaranty of the Protestant succession. Precautions were taken to secure the seaports; and the command of the fleet was bestowed upon the earl of Berkeley, a professed Whig. These measures, which were all dictated by that party, answered a double end. It argued their own alacrity in the cause of their new sovereign, and seemed to imply a danger to the state from the disaffection of the opposite interest.

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CHAPTER XXXIV.

GEORGE I.—A. D. 1714—1727.

AS A RESULT to the act of succession, George the First, son of Ernest Augustus, first elector of Brunswick, and the Princess Sophia, grand-daughter to James the First, ascended the British throne. His mature age, he being now forty-four years old, his sagacity and experience, his numerous alliances, the general tranquillity of Europe, all contributed to establish his interests, and to promise him a peaceable and happy reign. His abilities, though not shining, were solid; he was, of a very different disposition to the Stuart family, whom he succeeded. These were owing to a proverb, for leaving their friends in extremity; George, on the contrary, soon after his arrival in England, was heard to say, "My maxim is, never to abandon my friends; to do justice to all the world; and to fear no man."

These qualifications of resolution and perseverance, he added great application to business. However, one fault with respect to England remained behind; he studied the interests of those subjects he had left, more than those he came to govern.

The queen had no sooner resigned her breath, than the privy-council met, and three instruments were produced, by which the elector appointed several of his known adherents to be added as Lords Justices to seven great offices of the kingdom. Orders also were immediately issued out for proclaiming George king of England, Scotland, and Ireland. The regency appointed the earl of Dorset to carry the intimation of his accession to the crown, and to attend him on his journey to England. They sent the general officers, in whom they could confide, to their posts; they reinforced the garrison of Portsmouth, and appointed the celebrated Mr. Addison secretary of state. To mortify the party the more, lord Bolingbroke was obliged to wait many mornings in the passage among the servants with his box of papers, where there were persons purposely placed to insult and deride him. No tumult appeared, no commotion rose against the accession of the new king, and this gave a strong proof that no national measures were ever taken to obstruct his exaltation.

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When he first landed at Greenwich, he was received by the duke of Northumberland, captain of the life-guards, and the lords of the regency. When he retired to his bedchamber he then sent for such of the nobility as had distinguished themselves by their zeal for his succession. But the duke of Ormond, the lord-chancellor, and the lord-treasurer, found themselves excluded. The king of a faction is but the sovereign of half his subjects. Of this, however, the new-elected monarch did not seem sensible. It was his misfortune, and consequently that of the nation, that he was hemmed round by men, who soured him with all their own interests and prejudices. None now but the leaders of a party were admitted into employment. The Whigs, while they pretended to secure the crown for their king, were, with all possible arts, confirming their own interests, extending their connexions, and giving laws to their sovereign. An instantaneous and total change was made in all the offices of trust, honour, or advantage. The Whigs governed the senate and the court; whom they would, they oppressed; bound the lower orders of people with severe laws, and kept them at a distance by vile distinctions; and then taught them to call this—Liberty.

These partialities soon raised discontent among the people, and the king's attachment considerably increased the malcontents through all the kingdom. The clamour of the church's being in danger was revived, and the people only seemed to want a leader to incite them into insurrection. Birmingham, Bristol, Norwich, and Reading, still remembered the spirit with which they had declared for Sacheverel; and now the cry was, Down with the Whigs, and Sacheverel for ever.

Upon the first meeting of the new parliament, in 1714, which the Whigs, with the king at their head, were predominant, nothing was expected but the most violent measures against the late ministry, nor were these expectations disappointed. The lords professed their hopes that the king would be able to recover the reputation of the kingdom on the continent, the loss of which they affected to deplore. The commons declared their resolution to trace out those measures by which the country was depressed; and with those abettors on whom the minister seemed to rely.

It was the artifice, during this and the succeeding reign, to stigmatize all those who testified their discontent against government, as Papists and Jacobites. All who ventured to speak against the violence of their measures, were reproached as designing to bring in the Pretender; and most people were consequently afraid to murmur, since discontent was so near akin to treason. The people, therefore, beheld the violence of their conduct, without daring to avow their detestation.

A committee was appointed, consisting of twenty persons, to inspect all the papers relative to the late negotiation for peace, and to pick out such of them as might serve as subjects of accusation against the late ministry. After some time spent in this disquisition, Mr. Walpole, as chairman of the committee, declared to the house that a report was drawn up; and in the mean time, moved, that a warrant might be issued for apprehending Mr. Matthew Prior, and Mr. Thomas Harley, who, being in the house, were immediately taken into custody. He then impeached lord Bolingbroke of high treason. This struck some of the members with amazement: but they were still more astonished, when lord Coningsby rising up, was heard to say, "The worthy chairman has impeached the hand, but I impeach the head; he has impeached the scholar, and I the master. I impeach Robert, earl of Oxford and Mortimer, of high treason, and other crimes and misdemeanors."

When lord Oxford appeared in the house of lords the day following, he was avoided by the peers as infectious, and he had now an opportunity of discovering the baseness of mankind. When the articles were read against him in the house of commons, a warm debate arose upon that in which he was charged with having advised the French king of the manner of gaining Tournay from the Dutch. Mr. Walpole alleged that it was treason. Sir Joseph Jekyll, a known Whig, said that he could never be of opinion that it amounted to treason. It was his principle, he said, to do justice to all men, to the highest and to the lowest. He hoped he might pretend to some knowledge of the law, and would not scruple to declare upon this part of the question in favour of the criminal. To this Walpole answered, with great warmth, that there were several persons both in and out of the committee, who did not in the least



yielded to that member in point of honesty, and exceeded him in the knowledge of the laws, and yet were satisfied that the charge in that article amounted to high treason. This point being decided against the earl, and the other articles approved by the house, the lord Coningsby, attended by the Whig members, impeached him soon after at the bar of the house of lords, demanding, at the same time, that he might lose his seat, and be committed to custody. When this point came to be debated in the house of lords, a violent altercation ensued. Those who still adhered to the deposed minister, maintained the injustice and the danger of such proceeding. At last the earl himself rose up, and with great tranquillity observed, That for his own part he always acted by the immediate directions and command of the queen, his mistress; he had never offended against any known law, and was unconcerned for the life of an insignificant old man.

Next day he was brought to the bar, where he received a copy of his impeachment, and was allowed a month to prepare his answer. Though Dr. Mead declared, that if the earl should be sent to the Tower, his life would be in danger, it was carried in the house that he should be committed. At the same time the duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke having omitted to surrender themselves (for they had actually fled to the continent) within a limited time, it was ordered, that the earl should raze out their names and arms from among the list of peers, and inventories were taken of their estates and possessions, which were declared forfeited to the crown.

Lord Oxford being confined in the Tower, he continued there for two years, during which time the nation was in a continual ferment, from an actual rebellion that was carried on unsuccessfully. After the execution of some lords who were taken in arms, the nation seemed glutted with blood, and that was the time that lord Oxford petitioned to be brought to his trial. He knew that the fury of the nation was spent on objects that were really culpable, and expected that his case would look like innocence itself, when compared to theirs. A day, therefore, at his own request, was assigned him, and the commons were ordered to prepare for their charge. At the appointed time the peers repaired to the court in Westminster-hall, where lord Cow-

per presided as lord-high-steward. But a dispute arising between the lords and commons concerning the mode of his trial, the lords voted that the prisoner should be set at liberty. To this dispute he probably owed the security of his title and fortune, for as to the articles, importing him guilty of high treason, they were at once malignant and frivolous, so that his life was in no manner of danger.

In the mean time, these vindictive proceedings excited the indignation of the people, who perceived that the avenues to royal favour were closed against all but a faction. The flames of rebellion were actually kindled in Scotland. The earl of Mar assembling three hundred of his own vassals in the Highlands, proclaimed the Pretender at Castletown, and set up his standard at a place called Braemaer, assuming the title of lieutenant-general of his majesty's forces. To second these attempts, two vessels arrived in Scotland from France, with arms, ammunition, and a number of officers, together with assurances to the earl, that the Pretender himself would shortly come over to head his own forces. The earl, in consequence of this promise, soon found himself at the head of ten thousand men, well armed and provided. The duke of Argyle, apprized of his intentions, and at any rate willing to prove his attachment to the present government, resolved to give him battle in the neighbourhood of Dumblain, though his forces did not amount to half the number of the enemy. After an engagement which continued several hours, in the evening both sides drew off, and both sides claimed the victory. Though the possession of the field was kept by neither, yet certainly all the honour and all the advantages of the day belonged to the duke of Argyle. It was sufficient for him to have interrupted the progress of the enemy; for in their circumstances delay was defeat. The earl of Mar soon found his disappointments and his losses increase. The castle of Inverness, of which he was in possession, was delivered up to the king by lord Lovat, who had hitherto professed to act in the interest of the Pretender. The marquis of Tullibardine forsook the earl, in order to defend his own part of the country; and many of the clans, seeing no likelihood of coming soon to a second engagement, returned quietly home.

In the mean time the rebellion was still more unsuccessfully prosecuted in England. From the time the Pretender

had undertaken this wild project at Paris, in which the duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke were engaged, lord Stair, the English ambassador there, had penetrated all his designs, and sent faithful accounts of all his measures, and all his adherents, to the ministry at home. Upon the first rumour, therefore, of an insurrection, they imprisoned several lords and gentlemen, of whom they had a suspicion. The earls of Home, Wintown, Kinnoul, and others, were committed to the castle of Edinburgh. The king obtained leave from the lower house to seize sir William Wyndham, sir John Packington, Harvey, Combe, and others. The lords Lansdown and Duplin were taken into custody. Sir William Wyndham's father-in-law, the duke of Somerset, offered to become bound for his appearance, but his surety was refused.

All these precautions were not able to stop the insurrection in the western counties, where it was already begun, but every measure was betrayed to government, as soon as projected, and many revolts repressed in the very outset. The university of Oxford was treated with great severity on this occasion. Major-general Pepper, with a strong detachment of dragoons, took possession of the city at daybreak, declaring he would instantly shoot any of the students who should presume to appear without the limits of their respective colleges. The insurrection in the northern  
A. D. counties came to greater maturity. In the month of  
1715. October, the earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Foster took the field with a body of horse, and being joined by some gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, proclaimed the Pretender. Their first attempt was to seize upon Newcastle, in which they had many friends, but they found the gates shut against them, and were obliged to retire to Hexham. To oppose these, general Carpenter was detached by government with a body of nine hundred men, and an engagement was hourly expected. The rebels had proceeded, by the way of Kendal and Lancaster, to Preston, of which place they took possession without any resistance. But this was the last stage of their ill-advised incursion; for general Wills, at the head of seven thousand men, came up to the town to attack them, and from his activity there was no escaping. They now, therefore, began to raise barricades, and to put the place in a posture of defence, repuls-

ing the first attack of the royal army with success. Next day, however, Wills was reinforced by Carpenter, and the town was invested on all sides. In this deplorable situation, to which they were reduced by their own rashness, Foster hoped to capitulate with the general, and accordingly sent colonel Oxburgh, who had been taken prisoner, with a trumpeter, to propose a capitulation. This, however, Wills refused, alleging, that he would not treat with rebels, and that the only favour they had to expect was to be spared from immediate slaughter. They accordingly laid down their arms, and were put under a strong guard; all the noblemen and leaders were secured, and a few of their officers tried for deserting from the royal army, and shot by order of a court-martial. The common men were imprisoned at Chester and Liverpool; the noblemen and considerable officers were sent to London, and led through the streets pinioned and bound together, to intimidate their party.

The Pretender might by this time have been convinced of the vanity of his expectations, in supposing that the whole country would rise up in his cause. His affairs were actually desperate; yet with his usual infatuation he resolved to hazard his person among his friends in Scotland, at a time when such a measure was too late for success. Passing, therefore, through France in disguise, and embarking in a small vessel at Dunkirk, he arrived after a voyage of a few days, on the coasts of Scotland, with only six gentlemen in his train. He passed unknown through Aberdeen to Feteresso, where he was met by the earl of Mar, and about thirty noblemen and gentlemen of the first quality. There he was solemnly proclaimed. His declaration, dated at Commercy, was printed and dispersed. He went from thence to Dundee, where he made a public entry, and in two days more he arrived at Scoon, where he intended to have the ceremony of his coronation performed. He ordered thanksgivings to be made for his safe arrival; he enjoined the ministers to pray for him in their churches; and, without the smallest share of power, went through all the ceremonies of royalty. Having thus spent some time in unimportant parade, he resolved to abandon the enterprise with the same levity with which it was undertaken. Having made a speech to his grand council, he informed them of his want of money, and

and ammunition, for undertaking a campaign, and therefore deplored that he was compelled to leave them. He once more embarked on board a small French ship that lay in the harbour of Montrose, accompanied with several lords, his adherents, and in five days arrived at Graveline.

In this manner ended a rebellion which nothing but impetuosity could project, and nothing but rashness could support. But though the enemy was no more, the fury of the victors did not seem in the least to abate with success. The law was now put in force with all its terrors; and the prisons of London were crowded with these deluded wretches, whom the ministry seemed resolved not to pardon. The commons, in their address to the crown, declared they would prosecute in the most vigorous manner, the authors of rebellion. In consequence of which, the earls of Derwentwater, Nithisdale, Carnwoth, and Winton, the lords Widdrington, Kenmuir, and Nairne, were impeached, and upon pleading guilty, all but lord Winton received sentence of death. No entreaties could soften the ministry to spare these unhappy men.

Orders were despatched for executing the lords Derwentwater, Nithisdale, and Kenmuir, immediately: the rest were respited to a further time. Nithisdale, however, had the good fortune to escape in women's clothes, which were brought him by his mother, the night before he was to have been executed. Derwentwater and Kenmuir were brought to the scaffold on Tower-hill at the time appointed. Both underwent their sentence with calm intrepidity, pitied by all, and seemingly less moved themselves than those who beheld them.

In the beginning of 1746, commissioners for trying the rebels met at the court of common-pleas, when bills were found against Mr. Foster, Mr. Mackintosh, and twenty of their confederates. Foster escaped from Newgate, and reached the continent in safety; the rest pleaded not guilty. Pitts, the keeper of Newgate, being suspected of having connived at Foster's escape, was tried for his life, but acquitted. Yet, notwithstanding this, Mackintosh and several other persons broke from Newgate, after having mastered the keeper and turnkey, and disarmed the sentinel. The court proceeded to the trial of those that remained, four or

five were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at Tyburn; two and twenty were executed at Preston and Manchester; and about a thousand prisoners experienced the king's mercy, but were transported to North America.

A rupture with Spain, which ensued some time after, served once more to raise the declining expectations of the Pretender and his adherents. It was hoped that, by the assistance of cardinal Alberoni, the Spanish minister, a new insurrection might be excited in England. The duke of Ormond was the person fixed upon to conduct this expedition; and he obtained from the Spanish court a fleet of ten ships of war and transports, having on board six thousand regular troops, with arms for twelve thousand more. But having set sail, and proceeded as far as Cape Finisterre, he was encountered by a violent storm, which disabled the fleet, and frustrated the expedition. This misfortune, together with the bad success of the Spanish arms in Sicily, and other parts of Europe, induced Phillip to wish for peace: and he at last agreed to sign the quadruple alliance. This was at that time thought an immense acquisition; but England, though she procured the ratification, had no share in the advantage of the treaty.

It was about this time that one John Law, a Scotsman, cheated France by erecting a company A. D. 1721. under the name of the Mississippi, which promised that deluded people great wealth, but ended in involving the French nation in great distress. It was now that the people of England were deceived by a project entirely similar, which is remembered by the name of the South-sea scheme, and which was felt long after by thousands. To explain this as concisely as possible, it is to be observed, that ever since the revolution under king William, the government not having had sufficient supplies granted by parliament, or what was granted requiring time to be collected, they were obliged to borrow money from several different companies of merchants, and, among the rest, from that company which traded to the South-sea. The South-sea company having made up their debt to the government ten millions, instead of six hundred thousand pounds, which they usually received as interest, were satisfied with five hundred thousand.

It was in this situation of things, that one Blount, who

had been bred a scrivener, and was possessed of all the cunning and plausibility requisite for such an undertaking, proposed to the ministry, in the name of the South-sea company, to buy up all the debts of the different companies of merchants, and thus to become the sole creditor of the state. The terms he offered to government were extremely advantageous. The South-sea company was to redeem the debts of the nation out of the hands of the private proprietors, who were creditors to government, upon whatever terms they could agree on; and for the interest of this money, which they had thus redeemed, and taken into their own hands, they would be contented to be allowed by government, for six years, five per cent., then the interest should be reduced to four per cent. and should at any time be redeemable by parliament. But now came the part of the scheme big with fraud and ruin. As the directors of the South-sea company could not of themselves be supposed to possess money sufficient to buy up the debts of the nation, they were empowered to raise it by opening a subscription to a scheme for trading in the South-seas, from which commerce immense ideal advantages were promised by the cunning directors, and still greater expected by the rapacious credulity of the people. All persons, therefore, who were creditors to government, were invited to come in, and exchange their stocks for that of the South-sea company.

The directors' books were no sooner opened for the first subscription, but crowds came to make the exchange of their other stock for South-sea stock. The delusion was artfully continued and spread. Subscriptions in a few days sold for double the price they had been bought at. The scheme succeeded even beyond the projectors' hopes, and the whole nation was infected with a spirit of avaricious enterprise. The infatuation prevailed; the stock increased to a surprising degree, and to near ten times the value of what it was at first subscribed for.

After a few months, however, the people found that all the advantages they expected were imaginary, while thousands of families were involved in one common ruin. The principal delinquents were punished by parliament with the forfeiture of all such possessions and estates as they had acquired during the continuance of this popular frenzy, and some care also was taken to redress the sufferers. The

discontents occasioned by these public calamities once more gave the disaffected party hopes of succeeding. But in all their councils they were weak, divided, and wavering. The first person who was seized upon suspicion was Francis Aterbury, bishop of Rochester, a prelate long obnoxious to the present government, and possessed of abilities to render him formidable to any ministry. His papers were seized, and he himself confined in the Tower. Soon after, the duke of Norfolk, the earl of Ormby, the lords North and Grey, and some others of inferior rank, were arrested and imprisoned. Of all these, however, only the bishop, who was banished, and one Mr. Laver, who was hanged at Tyburn, felt the severity of government, the proofs against the rest amounting to no convictive evidence.

The commons about this time finding many abuses had crept into the court of chancery, which either impeded justice, or rendered it venal, they resolved to impeach the chancellor Thomas, earl of Macclesfield, at the bar of the house of lords, for high crimes and misdemeanors. This was one of the most laborious and best contested trials in the annals of England. The trial lasted twenty days. The earl proved that the sums he received for the sale of places in chancery had been usually received by former lord chancellors: but reason told that such receipts were contrary to strict justice. Equity, therefore, prevailed above precedent; the earl was convicted of fraudulent practices, and condemned to a fine of thirty thousand pounds, with imprisonment until that sum should be paid, which was accordingly discharged in about six weeks after.

In this manner, the corruption, venality, and avarice of the times had increased with the riches and luxury of the nation. Commerce introduced fraud, and wealth introduced prodigality. The parliament indeed made some new efforts to check the progress of vice and immorality, which now began to be diffused through every rank of life; but they were supported neither by the co-operation of the ministry, nor the voice of the people.

It was now two years since the king had visited his electoral dominions of Hanover. He, therefore, soon after the breaking up of the parliament, prepared for a journey thither. Having appointed a regency in his absence, he embarked for Holland, and lay

A. D.  
1627.



upon his landing at a little town called Voet. Next day he proceeded on his journey; and in two days more, between ten and eleven at night, arrived at Delden, to all appearance in perfect health. He supped there very heartily, and continued his progress early the next morning, but between eight and nine ordered his coach to stop. It being perceived that one of his hands lay motionless, monsieur Fabrice, who had formerly been servant to the king of Sweden, and who now attended king George, attempted to quicken the circulation, by chafing it between his hands. As this had no effect, the surgeon, who followed on horseback, was called, and he also rubbed it with spirits. Soon after the king's tongue began to swell, and he had just strength enough to bid them hasten to Osnaburg. Then falling insensible into Fabrice's arms, he never recovered, but expired about eleven o'clock the next morning, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

## CHAPTER XXXV.

GEORGE II.—A. D. 1727—1760.

Upon the death of George the First, his son, George the Second, came to the crown; a man of inferior abilities to the late king, and strongly biassed with a partiality to his dominions on the continent. The chief person, who engrossed the greatest share of power under him, was sir Robert Walpole, who had risen from low beginnings, through two successive reigns, into great estimation. He was considered as a martyr to his cause, in the reign of queen Anne: and when the Tory party could no longer oppress him, he still preserved that hatred against them with which he set out. To defend the declining prerogative of the crown, might perhaps have been the first object of his attention; but soon after those very measures by which he pretended to secure it, proved the most effectual means to lessen it. By corrupting the house of commons, he increased their riches and their power; and they were not averse to voting away those millions which he permitted them so liberally to share. As such a tendency in him naturally produced opposition, he was possessed of a most phlegmatic insensibility to reproach, and

a calm dispassionate manner of reasoning upon such topics as he desired should be believed. His discourse was fluent, but without dignity; and his manner convincing from its apparent want of art.

The Spaniards were the first nation who showed the futility of the treaties of the former reign to bind, when any advantage was to be procured by infraction. The people of our West-India islands had long carried on an illicit trade with the subjects of Spain upon the continent, but whenever detected were rigorously punished, and their cargoes confiscated to the crown. In this temerity of adventure on the one hand, and vigilance of pursuit and punishment on the other, it must often have happened that the innocent suffered with the guilty, and many complaints were made, perhaps founded on justice, that the English merchants were plundered by the Spanish king's vessels upon the southern coast of America, as if they had been pirates.

The English ministry, unwilling to credit every report which was inflamed by resentment, or urged by avarice, expected to remedy the evils complained of by their favourite system of treaty, and in the mean time promised the nation redress. At length, however, the complaints became more general, and the merchants remonstrated by petition to the house of commons, who entered into a deliberation on the subject. They examined the evidence of several who had been unjustly seized, and treated with great cruelty. One man, the master of a trading vessel, had been used by the Spaniards in a most shocking manner; he gave in his evidence with great precision, informed the house of the manner they had plundered and stripped him, of their cutting off his ears, and their preparing to put him to death. "I then looked up," cried he, "to my God for pardon, and to my country for revenge."

These accounts raised a flame among the people, which it was neither the minister's interest, nor perhaps that of the nation to indulge; new negotiations were set on foot, and new mediators offered their interposition. A treaty was signed at Vienna, between the emperor, the king of Great Britain, and the king of Spain, which settled the peace of Europe upon its former footing, and put off the threatened war for a time. By this treaty the king of England conceived hopes

that the war would be at an end. Don Carlos, upon the death of the duke of Parma, was, by the assistance of an English fleet, put in peaceable possession of Parma and Placentia, while six thousand Spaniards were quietly admitted, and quartered in the duchy of Tuscany, to secure for him the reversion of the dukedom.

An interval of peace succeeded, in which scarce any thing remarkable happened, and scarce any contest ensued except in the British parliament, where the disputes between the court and the country party were carried on with unceasing animosity.

A society of men in this interested age of seeming benevolence, had united themselves into a company by the name of the Charitable Corporation; and their  
 A. D. 1781. professed intention was to lend money at legal interest to the poor, upon small pledges, and to persons of higher rank upon proper security. Their capital was at first limited to thirty thousand pounds, but they afterwards increased it to six hundred thousand. This money was supplied by subscription, and the care of conducting the capital was intrusted in a proper number of directors. This company having continued for more than twenty years, the cashier, George Robinson, member for Marlow, and the warehouse-keeper, John Thompson, disappeared in one day. Five hundred thousand pounds of capital were found to be sunk and embezzled by means which the proprietors could not discover. They, therefore, in a petition, represented to the house the manner in which they had been defrauded, and the distress to which many of the petitioners were reduced. A secret committee being appointed to examine into this grievance, a most iniquitous scene of fraud was soon discovered, which had been carried on by Robinson and Thompson, in concert with some of the directors, for embezzling the capital and cheating the proprietors. Many persons of rank and quality were concerned in this infamous conspiracy; and even some of the first characters in the nation did not escape censure. A spirit of avarice and rapacity had infected every rank of life about this time; no less than six members of parliament were expelled for the most sordid acts of knavery. Sir Robert Sutton, sir Archibald Grant, and George Robinson, for their frauds in the management of the Charitable Corporation scheme: Dennis

Bond, and serjeant Burch, for a fraudulent sale of the late unfortunate earl of Derwentwater's large estate; and lastly, John Ward, of Hackney, for forgery. Luxury had given birth to prodigality, and that was the parent of the meaner arts of speculation. It was asserted in the house of lords, at that time, that not one shilling of the forfeited estates was ever applied to the service of the public, but became the reward of fraud and venality.

A scheme set on foot by sir Robert Walpole soon after engrossed the attention of the public, which was to fix a general excise. The minister introduced it into the house, by going into a detail of the frauds practised by the factors in London, who were employed by the American planters in selling their tobacco. To prevent these frauds he proposed, that instead of having the customs levied in the usual manner upon tobacco, all hereafter to be imported should be lodged in warehouses appointed for that purpose by the officers of the crown, and should from thence be sold, upon paying the duty of fourpence a pound, when the proprietor found a purchaser. This proposal raised a violent ferment, not less within doors than without. It was asserted that it would expose the factors to such hardships that they would not be able to continue their trade, and that such a scheme would not even prevent the frauds complained of. It was added, that a number of additional excisemen and warehouse-keepers would thus be employed, which would at once render the ministry formidable, and the people dependent. Such were the arguments made use of to stir up the citizens to oppose this law; arguments rather specious than solid, since, with all its disadvantages, the tax upon tobacco would thus be more safely and expeditiously collected, and the avenues to numberless frauds would be shut up. The people, however, were raised into such a ferment, that the parliament-house was surrounded with multitudes, who intimidated the ministry, and compelled them to drop the design. The miscarriage of the bill was celebrated with public rejoicings in London and Westminster, and the minister was burned in effigy by the populace of London.

Ever since the treaty of Utrecht, the Spaniards in America had insulted and distressed the commerce of Great Britain, and the British merchants had attempted to carry on an

illicit trade into their dominions. A right which the English merchants claimed by treaty, of cutting logwood in the bay of Campeachy, gave them frequent opportunities of pushing in contraband commodities upon the continent; so that to suppress the evil, the Spaniards were resolved to annihilate the claim. This liberty of cutting logwood had often been acknowledged, but never clearly ascertained; in all former treaties, it was considered as an object of too little importance to make a separate article in any negotiation. The Spanish vessels appointed for protecting the coast continued their severities upon the English; many of the subjects of Britain were sent to dig in the mines of Potosi, and deprived of all means of conveying their complaints to those who might send them redress. One remonstrance followed another to the court of Madrid of this violation of treaty; but the only answer given was promises of inquiry, which produced no reformation. Our merchants complained loudly of those outrages; but the ministers vainly expected from negotiations that redress, which was only to be obtained by arms.

The fears discovered by the court of Great Britain only served to increase the insolence of the enemy; and their guard-ships continued to seize not only all the guilty, but the innocent, whom they found sailing along the Spanish main. At last, however, the complaints of the English merchants were loud enough to interest the house of commons; their letters and memorials were produced, and their grievances enforced by counsel at the bar of the house. It was soon found that the money which Spain had agreed to pay the court of Great Britain was withheld, and no reason assigned for the delay. The minister, therefore, to gratify the general ardour, and to atone for his former deficiencies, assured the house that he would put the nation in a condition for war. Soon after, letters of reprisals were granted against the Spaniards, and this being on both sides considered as an actual commencement of hostilities, both diligently set forward their armaments by sea and land. In this threatening situation the French minister at the Hague declared that his master was obliged by treaty to assist the king of Spain; so that the alliances, which but twenty years before had taken place, were now quite reversed. At that time France and England were combined

against Spain; at present, France and Spain were united against England; such little hopes can statesmen place upon the firmest treaties, where there is no superior power to compel the observance.

A rupture between England and Spain having now become unavoidable, the people, who had long clamoured for war, began to feel uncommon alacrity at its approach; and the ministry, finding it inevitable, began to be as earnest in preparation. Orders were issued for augmenting the land-forces, and raising a body of marines. A. D. 1739. War was declared with proper solemnity, and soon after, two rich Spanish prizes were taken in the Mediterranean. Admiral Vernon, a man of more courage than experience, of more confidence than skill, was sent commander of a fleet into the West Indies, to distress the enemy in that part of the globe. He had asserted in the house of commons that Porto Bello, a fort and harbour in South America, could be easily destroyed, and that he himself would undertake to reduce it, with six ships only. A project which appeared so wild and impossible, was ridiculed by the ministry; but as he still persisted in the proposal, they complied with his request, hoping that his want of success might repress the confidence of his party. In this, however, they were disappointed; for with six ships only, he attacked and demolished all the fortifications of the place, and came away victorious, with scarcely the loss of a man. This victory was magnified at home in all the strains of panegyric, and the triumph was far superior to the value of conquest.

While vigorous preparations were making in the other departments, a squadron of ships were equipped for distressing the enemy in the South Seas, the command of which was given to commodore Anson. This fleet was destined to sail through the straits of Magellan, and proceed northwards along the coasts of Chili and Peru, to co-operate occasionally with admiral Vernon across the Isthmus of Darien. These delays and mistakes of the ministry frustrated that part of the scheme, which was originally well laid. When it was too late in the season, the commodore set out with five ships of the line, a frigate, and two store-ships, with about fourteen hundred men. Having reached the coast of Brazil, he refreshed his men for some time on

the island of St. Catherine, a spot that enjoys all the fruitfulness and verdure of the luxurious tropical climate. From thence he steered downward into the cold and tempestuous regions of the south; and in about five months after, meeting a terrible tempest, he doubled Cape Horn. By this time his fleet was dispersed, and his crew deplorably disabled by the scurvy: so that with much difficulty he gained the delightful island of Juan Fernandez. There he was joined by one ship, and a vessel of seven guns. From thence advancing northward, he landed on the coast of Chili, and attacked the city of Paita by night. In this bold attempt he made no use of his shipping, nor even disembarked all his men; a few soldiers, favoured by darkness, sufficed to fill the whole town with terror and confusion. The governor of the garrison and the inhabitants, fled on all sides; accustomed to be severe, they expected severity. In the mean time a small body of the English kept possession of the town for three days, stripped it of all the treasures and merchandise to a considerable amount, and then set it on fire.

Soon after, this small squadron advanced as far as Panama, situated on the Isthmus of Darien, on the western side of the great American continent. The commodore now placed all hopes in taking one of those valuable ships which trade from the Philippine Islands to Mexico. Not above one or two at the most of these immensely rich ships went from one continent to the other in a year; they were, therefore, very large, in order to carry a sufficiency of treasure, and proportionably strong to defend it. In hopes of meeting with one of these, the commodore, with his little fleet, traversed the great Pacific ocean; but the scurvy once more visiting his crew, several of his men died, and almost all were disabled. In this exigence, having brought all his men into one vessel, and set fire to the other, he steered for the island of Tinian, which lies about half-way between the world and the old. In this charming abode he con-  
d for some time, till his men recovered their health, his ship was refitted for sailing.

Thus refitted, he set forward for China, where he laid in proper stores for once more traversing back that immense ocean, in which he had just before suffered such incredible difficulties. Having accordingly taken some Dutch and

Indian sailors on board, he again steered towards America, and at length, after various toils, discovered the Spanish galleon he had so long ardently expected. This vessel was built as well for the purposes of war as of merchandise. It mounted sixty guns, and five hundred men, while the crew of the commodore did not amount to half that number. However the victory was on the side of the English, and they returned home with their valuable prize, which was estimated at three hundred and thirteen thousand pounds sterling, while the different captures that had been made before amounted to as much more. Thus, after a voyage of three years, conducted with astonishing perseverance and intrepidity, the public sustained the loss of a noble fleet; but a few individuals became possessed of immense riches.

In the mean time the English conducted other operations against the enemy with amazing activity. When Anson set out, it was with a design of acting a subordinate part to a formidable armament designed for the coasts of New Spain, consisting of twenty-nine ships of the line, and almost an equal number of frigates, furnished with all kinds of warlike stores, near fifteen thousand seamen, and as many land-forces. Never was a fleet more completely equipped, nor ever had the nation more sanguine hopes of success. Lord Cathcart was appointed to command the land-forces; but he dying on the passage, the command devolved upon general Wentworth, whose abilities were supposed to be unequal to the trust reposed in him.

When the forces were landed at Carthagena, they erected a battery, with which they made a breach in the principal fort, while Vernon, who commanded the fleet, sent a number of ships into the harbour, to divide the fire of the enemy, and to co-operate with the army on shore. The breach being deemed practicable, a body of troops were commanded to storm; but the Spaniards deserted the forts, which, if possessed of courage, they might have defended with success. The troops, upon gaining this advantage, were advanced a good deal nearer the city; but they there met a much greater opposition than they had expected. It was found, or asserted, that the fleet could not lie near enough to batter the town, and that nothing remained but to attempt one of the forts by scaling. The leaders of the fleet, and the army began mutually to accuse each other, each assert-



ing the probability of what the other denied. At length Wentworth, stimulated by the admiral's reproach, resolved to try the dangerous experiment, and ordered that fort St. Lazare should be attempted by escalade. Nothing could be more unfortunate than this undertaking; the forces marching up to the attack, their guides were slain, and they mistook their way. Instead of attempting the weakest part of the fort, they advanced to where it was strongest, and where they were exposed to the fire of the town. Colonel Grant, who commanded the grenadiers, was killed in the beginning. Soon after it was found that their scaling ladders were too short; the officers were perplexed for want of orders; and the troops stood exposed to the whole fire of the enemy, without knowing how to proceed. After bearing a dreadful fire some hours with great intrepidity, they at length retreated, leaving six hundred men dead on the spot. The terrors of the climate soon began to be more dreaded than those of war; the rainy season came on with such violence, that it was impossible for the troops to continue encamped; and the mortality of the season now began to attack them in all its frightful varieties. To these calamities was added the dissension between the land and sea commanders, who blamed each other for every failure. They only could be brought to agree to re-embark the troops, and withdraw them, as quick as possible, from this scene of slaughter and contagion. This fatal miscarriage was no sooner known in England, than the kingdom was filled with murmurs and discontent. The loudest bursts of indignation was directed at the minister; and they who once praised him for successes he did not merit, condemned him now for a failure of which he was guiltless.

A. D. 1741. The minister finding the indignation of the house of commons turned against him, tried every art to break every confederacy, which he knew he had not strength to oppose. The resentment of the people had been raised against him to an extravagant height; and their leaders taught them to expect very signal justice on their supposed oppressor. At length, finding his post untenable, he declared he would never sit more in that house; the next day the king adjourned both houses of parliament for a few days, and, in the interim, sir Robert Walpole was created earl of Orford, and resigned all his employments.

But the pleasure of his defeat was of short duration; it soon appeared that those who declared most loudly for the liberty of the people had adopted new measures with their new employments. The new converts were branded as betrayers of the interests of their country; but particularly the resentment of the people fell upon Pultney, earl of Bath, who had long declaimed against that very conduct he now seemed to pursue. He had been the idol of the people, and considered as one of the most illustrious champions that had ever defended the cause of freedom; but allured, perhaps, with the hope of governing in Walpole's place, he was contented to give up his popularity for ambition. The king, however, treated him with that neglect which he merited; he was laid aside for life, and continued a wretched survivor of all his former importance.

The emperor dying in the year 1740, the French began to think this a favourable opportunity for exerting their ambition once more. Regardless of treaties, particularly that called the Pragmatic Sanction, by which the reversion of all the late emperor's dominions was settled upon his daughter, they elected the elector of Bavaria to be crowned emperor. Thus the queen of Hungary the daughter of Charles the Sixth, descended from an illustrious line of emperors, saw herself stripped of her inheritance, and left for a whole year deserted by all Europe, and without hopes of succour. She had scarce closed her father's eyes, when she lost Silesia by an irruption of the young king of Prussia, who seized the opportunity of her defenceless state to renew his ancient pretensions to that province, of which it must be owned his ancestors had been unjustly deprived. France, Saxony, and Bavaria, attacked the rest of her dominions; England was the only ally that seemed willing to espouse her helpless condition. Sardinia and Holland soon after came to her assistance; and last of all Russia acceded to the union in her favour.

It may now be demanded, what cause Britain had to intermeddle in these continental schemes? It can only be answered, that the interest of Hanover, and the security of that electorate, depended upon the nicely balancing the different interests of the empire; and the English ministry were willing to gratify the king. Accordingly the king sent a body of English forces into the Netherlands, which he had

## HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

augmented by sixteen thousand Hanoverians, to make a diversion upon the dominions of France, in the queen of Hungary's favour. And by the assistance of these the queen of Hungary soon began to turn the scale of victory on her side. The French were driven out of Bohemia. Her general, prince Charles, at the head of a large army, invaded the dominions of Bavaria. Her rival, the nominal emperor, was obliged to fly before her; and being abandoned by his allies, and stripped of even his hereditary dominions, retired to Frankfort, where he lived in obscurity.

The French, in order to prevent this junction of the Austrian and British forces, assembled an army of sixty thousand men upon the river Mayne, under the command of marshal Noailles, who posted his troops upon the east side of that river. The British forces, to the number of forty thousand, pushed forward on the other side into a country where they were entirely destitute of provisions, the French having cut off all means of their being supplied. The king of England arriving at the camp, while his army was in this deplorable situation, resolved to penetrate forward to join twelve thousand Hanoverians and Hessians, who had reached Hanau: but before his army had reached three leagues, he found the enemy had enclosed him on every side, near the village called Dettingen.

Nothing now presented but the most mortifying prospects; if he fought the enemy, it must be at the greatest disadvantage; if he continued inactive, there was a certainty of being starved; and a retreat for all was impossible. The impetuosity of the French troops saved his whole army. They passed a defile which they should have been contented to guard; and, under the command of the duke of Gramont, their horse charged the English foot with great fury. They were received with intrepidity and resolution; so that they were obliged to give way, and repass the Mayne with precipitation, with the loss of above five thousand men.

Meanwhile the French went on with vigour on every side. They projected an invasion of England; and Charles, the son of the emperor, departed from Rome, in the character of a Spanish courier, for Paris, where he had an audience of the French king. The family had long been the

dupes of France; but it was thought at present there were serious resolutions formed in their favour. The troops destined for the expedition amounted to fifteen thousand men; preparations were made for embarking them at Dunkirk, and some of the nearest ports to England, under the eye of the young Pretender. The duke de Roqueseuille, with twenty ships of the line, was to see them safely landed in England, and the famous count Saxe was to command them, when put on shore. But the whole project was disconcerted by the appearance of sir John Norris, who, with a superior fleet, made up to attack them. The French fleet was thus obliged to put back; a very bad gale of wind damaged their transports beyond redress; and the French, now frustrated in their scheme of a sudden descent, thought fit openly to declare war.

The French, therefore, entered upon the war with great alacrity. They besieged Fribourg, and in the beginning of the succeeding campaign invested the strong city of Tournay. Although the allies were inferior in number, yet they resolved, if possible, to save the city by hazarding a battle. They accordingly marched against the enemy, and took post in sight of the French, who were encamped on an eminence, the village of St. Antoine on the right, a wood on the left, and the town of Fontenoy before them. This advantageous situation did not repress the ardour of the English, who began the attack at two o'clock in the morning, and pressing forward bore down all opposition. They were for near an hour victorious, and confident of success, while Saxe, a soldier of fortune, who commanded the French army, was at that time sick of the same disorder of which he afterwards died. However, he was carried about to all the posts in a litter, and assured his attendants that, notwithstanding all unfavourable appearances, the day was his own. A column of the English, without any command, but by mere mechanical courage, had advanced upon the enemy's lines, which opening, formed an avenue on each side, to receive them. It was then that the French artillery on the three sides began to play on this fellow body, which, though they continued for a long time unshaken, were obliged at last to retreat about three in the afternoon. This was one of the most bloody battles that had been fought in this age; the slaughter on the English side

near twelve thousand men, and the French bought their victory with near an equal number of slain, but it gave them such a manifest superiority all the rest of the campaign, that they kept the fruits of it during the whole continuance of the war.

But though bad success attended the British arms by land and sea, yet these being distant evils, the English seemed only to complain from honourable motives, and murmured at distresses of which they had but a very remote prospect. A civil war also was now going to be kindled in their own dominions, which, while it increased their perplexities, only cemented their union. It was at this period, that the son of the old Pretender resolved to make an effort for gaining the British crown. Charles Edward, the adventurer in question, had been bred in a luxurious court, without partaking in its effeminacy. He was enterprising and ambitious; but either from inexperienced, or natural inability, utterly unequal to the bold undertaking. He was long flattered by the rash, the superstitious, and the needy: he was taught to believe that the kingdom was ripe for a revolt, and that it could no longer bear the immense load of taxes with which it was burdened, and being furnished with some money, and with large promises from France, he embarked for Scotland on board a small frigate, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, sir Thomas Sheridan, and a few other desperate adventurers. Thus for the conquest of the whole British empire, he only brought with him seven officers, and arms for two thousand men. On his arrival at Perth, the unnecessary ceremony was performed of proclaiming his father king of Great Britain. From thence descending with his forces from the mountains, they seemed to gather as they went forward; and advancing to Edinburgh, they entered that city without opposition. There again the pageantry of proclamation was performed, and there he promised to dissolve the union, which was considered as one of the grievances of the country. But the castle of that city still held out, and he was unprovided with cannon to besiege it.

In the mean time, sir John Cope, who had pursued the rebels through the Highlands, but had declined meeting them in their descent, being now reinforced by two regiments of dragoons, resolved to march towards Edinburgh,

and give the enemy battle. The young adventurer, whose forces were rather superior, though undisciplined, attacked him near Preston Pans, about twelve miles from the capital, and in a few minutes put him and his troops to flight. This victory, by which the king lost five hundred men, gave the rebels great influence; and had the Pretender taken advantage of the general consternation, and marched directly for England, the consequence might have been fatal to freedom. But he was amused by the promise of succours which never came; and thus induced to remain in Edinburgh, to enjoy the triumphs of an unimportant victory, and to be treated as a monarch, and while he was thus trifling away his time at Edinburgh, the ministry of Great Britain took every proper precaution to oppose him with success. Six thousand Dutch troops that had come over to the assistance of the crown, were despatched northward, under the command of general Wade. The duke of Cumberland soon after arrived from Flanders, and was followed by another detachment of dragoons and infantry, well disciplined, and inured to action. Besides these, volunteers offered in every part of the kingdom; and every county exerted a vigorous spirit of indignation both against the ambition, religion, and the allies of the young Pretender.

However, he had been bred in a school that taught him maxims very different from those that then prevailed in England. Though he might have brought civil war, and all the calamities attending it, with him into the kingdom, he had been taught the assertion of his right was a duty incumbent upon him, and the altering the constitution, and, perhaps, the religion of the country, an object of laudable ambition. Thus animated, he went forward with vigour, and having upon frequent consultations with his officers, come to a resolution of making an irruption into England, he entered the country by the western border, and invested Carlisle, which surrendered in less than three days. He there found a considerable quantity of arms, and there, too, he caused his father to be proclaimed king.

General Wade being apprized of his progress, advanced across the country from the opposite shore, but receiving intelligence that the enemy was too far to march before him, he retired to his former station. The young Pretender, therefore, thus unopposed, resolved to penetrate farther into

the kingdom, having received assurances from France that a considerable body of troops would be landed on the southern coasts, to make a diversion in his favour. He was flattered, also, with the hopes of being joined by a considerable number of malcontents, as he passed forward, and that his army would increase on the march. Accordingly, leaving a small garrison in Carlisle, which he should rather have left defenceless, he advanced to Penrith, marching on foot in a Highland dress, and continuing his irruption till he came to Manchester, where he established his head-quarters.

He was there joined by about two hundred English, who were formed into a regiment, under the command of colonel Townley. From thence he pursued his march to Derby, intending to go by the way of Chester into Wales, where he hoped to be joined by a great number of followers; but the factions among his own chiefs prevented his proceeding. He had, however, advanced within a hundred miles of the capital, which was filled with perplexity and consternation, and where, had he proceeded in his career, he would certainly have been joined by a considerable number of his well-wishers who waited impatiently for his approach.

In the mean time the king resolved to take the field in person. But he found safety from the discontents which now began to prevail in the Pretender's army. In fact, he was but the nominal leader of his forces; as his generals, the chiefs of the Highland clans, were, from their education, ignorant, and averse to subordination. They had, from the beginning, begun to embrace opposite systems of operation, and to contend with each other for pre-eminence; but they seemed now unanimous in returning to their own country once more.

The rebels accordingly effected their retreat to Carlisle, without any loss, and from thence crossed the rivers Eden and Solway into Scotland. In these marches, however, they preserved all the rules of war; they abstained, in a great measure from plunder, they levied contributions on the towns as they passed along, and with unaccountable precaution left a garrison in Carlisle, which shortly after was obliged to surrender to the duke of Cumberland at discretion, to the number of four hundred men.

The Pretender being returned to Scotland, he proceeded to Glasgow, from which city he exacted severe contribu-

tions. He advanced from thence to Stirling, where he was joined by lord Lewis Gordon, at the head of some forces, which had been assembled in his absence. Other clans, to the number of two thousand, came in likewise; and from some supplies of money which he had received from Spain, and from some skirmishes, in which he was successful against the royalists, his affairs began to wear a more promising aspect. Being joined by lord Drummond, he invested the castle of Stirling, commanded by general Blakeney, but the rebel forces being unused to sieges, consumed much time to no purpose. It was during this attempt, that general Hawley, who commanded a considerable body of forces near Edinburgh, undertook to raise the siege, and advanced towards the rebel army as far as Falkirk. After two days spent in mutually examining each other's strength, the rebels being ardent to engage, were led on in full spirits to attack the king's army. The Pretender, who was in the front line, gave the signal to engage; and the first fire put Hawley's forces into confusion. The horse retreated with precipitation, and fell upon their own infantry; while the rebels following the blow, the greatest part of the royal army retired in confusion to Edinburgh, leaving the conquerors in possession of their tents, their artillery, and the field of battle.

Thus far the affairs of the rebel army seemed not unprosperous; but here was an end of all their triumphs. The duke of Cumberland, at that time the favourite of the English army, put himself at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, which consisted of about fourteen thousand men. With these he advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by several of the Scottish nobility, and resolved to find out the enemy, who retreated at his approach. After having refreshed his troops at Aberdeen for some time, he renewed his march, and in twelve days he came up to the banks of the deep and rapid river Spey. This was the place where the rebels might have disputed his passage, but they lost every advantage in disputing with each other. They seemed now totally devoid of all counsel and subordination, without conduct, and without unanimity. After a variety of contests among each other, they resolved to await their pursuers upon the plains of Culloden, a place about nine miles distant from Inverness, imbosomed in hills except on that side which was open to the sea. There they drew up in order of battle, to



the number of eight thousand men, in three divisions, supplied with some pieces of artillery, ill manned and served.

The battle began about one o'clock in the afternoon; the cannon of the king's army did dreadful execution among the rebels, while theirs was totally unserviceable. One of the great errors in all the Pretender's warlike measures, was his subjecting wild and undisciplined troops to the forms of artful war, and thus repressing their native ardour, from which alone he could hope for success. After they had been kept in their ranks, and withstood the English fire for some time, they at length became impatient for closer engagement; and about five hundred of them made an irruption upon the left wing of the enemy, with their accustomed ferocity. The first line being disordered by this onset, two battalions advanced to support it, and galled the enemy with a terrible close discharge. At the same time the dragoons, under Hawley, and the Argyleshire militia, pulling down a park wall that guarded the flank of the enemy, and which they had but feebly defended, fell in among them sword in hand, with great slaughter. In less than thirty minutes they were totally routed, and the field covered with their wounded and slain, to the number of three thousand men. The French troops on the left did not fire a shot, but stood inactive, and afterwards surrendered themselves prisoners of war. An entire body of the clans marched off the field in order, while the rest were routed with great slaughter, and their leaders obliged with reluctance to retire. The victory was in every respect decisive, and humanity to the conquered would have rendered it glorious. But little mercy was shown here: the conquerors were seen to refuse quarter to the wounded, the unarmed, and the defenceless; and some were slain who were only excited by curiosity to become spectators of the combat. The duke, immediately after the action, ordered six and thirty deserters to be executed; and the conquerors spread terror wherever they came.

In this manner were blasted all the hopes, and all the ambition of the young adventurer; one short hour deprived him of imaginary thrones and sceptres, and reduced him from a nominal king, to a distressed forlorn outcast, shunned by all mankind, except such as sought his destruction. Immediately after the engagement, he fled away with a captain of Fitz-James's cavalry, and when their horses were fatigued

they both alighted, and separately sought for safety. He for some days wandered through a country naturally wild, but now rendered more formidable by war, a wretched spectator of all those horrors which were the result of his ill-guided ambition. He sometimes found refuge in caves and cottages, without attendants, and depended on the wretched natives, who could pity, but not relieve him. Sometimes he lay in forests, with one or two companions of his distress, continually pursued by the troops of the conqueror, as there was a reward of thirty thousand pounds offered for taking him, dead or alive. Sheridan, an Irish adventurer, was the person who kept most faithfully by him, and inspired him with courage to support such incredible hardships. He had occasion, in the course of his concealments, to trust his life to the fidelity of above fifty individuals, whose veneration for his family prevailed above their avarice.

One day having walked from morning to night he ventured to enter a house, the owner of which he well knew was attached to the opposite party. As he entered, he addressed the master of the house in the following manner:—“The son of your king comes to beg a little bread, and a few clothes. I know your present attachment to my adversaries, but I believe you have sufficient honour not to abuse my confidence, or take advantage of my distressed situation. Take these rags that have for some time been my only covering; you may probably restore them to me one day when I shall be seated on the throne of Great Britain.” The master of the house was touched with pity at his distress; he assisted him as far as he was able, and never divulged the secret. There were few of those who even wished his destruction, would choose to be the immediate actors in it, as it would subject them to the resentment of a numerous party.

In this manner he continued to wander among the frightful wilds of Glengary, for near six months, often hemmed round by his pursuers, but still rescued by some lucky accident, from the impending danger. At length a privateer of St. Maloes, hired by his adherents, arrived at Lochnanach, in which he embarked in the most wretched attire. He was clad in a short coat of black frize, threadbare, over which was a common Highland plaid, girt round by a belt, from which depended a pistol and a dagger. He had not been

shifted for many weeks; his eyes were hollow, his visage wan, and his constitution greatly impaired by famine and fatigue. He was accompanied by Sullivan and Sheridan, two Irish adherents, who had shared all his calamities, together with Cameron of Lochiel, and his brother, and a few other exiles. They set sail for France, and after having been chased by two English men of war, they arrived in safety at a place called Roseau, near Morlaix, in Bretagne. Perhaps he would have found it more difficult to escape, had not the vigilance of his pursuers been relaxed, by a report that he was already slain.

In the mean time, while the Pretender was thus pursued, seventeen officers of the rebel army were hanged, drawn and quartered at Kennington-common, in the neighbourhood of London. Nine were executed in the same manner at Carlisle, and eleven at York. A few obtained pardons, and a considerable number of the common men were transported to the plantations in North America. The earls of Kilmarnock and Cromartie, and the lord Balmerino were tried by their peers, and found guilty. Cromartie was pardoned, and the others were beheaded on Tower-hill.

In this manner victory, defeat, negotiation, treachery, and rebellion, succeeded each other rapidly for some years, till all sides began to think themselves growing more feeble, and gaining no solid advantage. A negotiation was therefore resolved upon; and the contending powers agreed to come to a congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, where the earl of Sandwich and sir Thomas Robinson, assisted as plenipotentiaries from the king of Great Britain. This treaty was begun, upon the preliminary conditions of restoring all the conquests made during the war. From thence great hopes were expected of conditions both favourable and honourable to the English; but the treaty still remains a lasting mark of precipitate councils. By this it was agreed, that all the prisoners on each side should be mutually restored, and all the conquests given up. That the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Gustalla, should be ceded to Don Philip, heir-apparent to the Spanish throne, and to his heirs; but in case of his succeeding to the crown of Spain, then these dominions should revert to the house of Austria. It was confirmed, that the fortifications of Dunkirk to the sea should be demolished; that the English ship annually sent with slaves

to the coast of New Spain, should have this privilege continued for four years. That the king of Prussia should be confirmed in the possession of Silesia, which he had lately conquered ; and that the queen of Hungary should be secured in her patrimonial dominions. But one article of the peace was more displeasing and afflictive to the English than all the rest. It was stipulated, that the king of Great Britain should, immediately after the ratification of this treaty, send two persons of rank and distinction to France as hostages, until restitution should be made of Cape Breton, and all other conquests which England had made during the war. This was a mortifying clause ; but, to add to the general error of the negotiation, no mention was made of the searching the vessels of England in the American seas, upon which the war was originally begun. The limits of their respective possessions in North America were not ascertained ; nor did they receive any equivalent for those forts which they restored to the enemy. The treaty of Utrecht had long been the object of reproach to those by whom it was made ; but, with all its faults, the treaty now concluded was by far more despicable and erroneous. Yet such was the spirit of the times, that the treaty of Utrecht was branded with universal contempt, and the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was extolled with the highest strains of praise.

This treaty, which some asserted would serve for a bond of permanent amity, was, properly speaking, but a temporary truce ; a cessation from hostilities, which both sides were unable to continue. Though the war between England and France was actually hushed up in Europe, yet in the East and West Indies it still went forward with undiminished vehemence. Both sides still willing to offend, still offending, and yet both complaining of the infraction.

A new colony having been formed in North America, in the province of Nova Scotia, it was thought that thither the waste of an exuberant nation might well be drained off ; and those bold spirits kept in employment at a distance, who might be dangerous, if suffered to continue in idleness at home. Nova Scotia was a place where men might be imprisoned, but not maintained ; it was cold, barren, and incapable of successful cultivation. The new colony, therefore, was maintained there with some expense to the government in the beginning ; and such as were permitted, soon

went southward to the milder climates, where they were invited by an untenanted and fertile soil. Thus did the nation ungratefully send off her hardy veterans to perish on inhospitable shores; and this they were taught to believe would extend their dominions.

However, it was for this barren spot that the English and French revived the war, which soon after spread with such terrible devastation over every part of the globe. The native Indians bordering upon the deserts of Nova Scotia, a fierce and savage people, looked from the first with jealousy upon these new settlers; and they considered the vicinity of the English as an encroachment upon their native possessions. The French, who were neighbours in like manner, and who were still impressed with national animosity, fomented these suspicions in the natives, and represented the English (and with regard to this colony the representation might be true) as enterprising and severe. Commissaries were therefore appointed to meet at Paris, to compromise these disputes; but these conferences were rendered abortive by the cavillings of men who could not be supposed to understand the subject in debate.

As this seemed to be the first place where the dissensions took their rise for a new war, it may be necessary to be a little more minute. The French had been the first cultivators of Nova Scotia, and by great industry and long perseverance, had rendered the soil, naturally barren, somewhat more fertile, and capable of sustaining nature with some assistance from Europe. This country, however, had frequently changed masters, until at length the English were settled in the possession, and acknowledged as the rightful owners, by the treaty of Utrecht. The possession of this country was reckoned necessary to defend the English colonies to the north, and to preserve their superiority in the fisheries in that part of the world. The French, however, who had long been settled in the back parts of the country, resolved to use every method to dispossess the new comers, and spirited up the Indians to more open hostilities, which were represented to the English ministry for some time without redress.

Soon after this another source of dispute began to be seen in the same part of the world, and promised as much uneasiness as the former. The French pretending first to

have discovered the mouth of the river Mississippi, claimed the whole adjacent country towards New Mexico on the east, and quite to the Apalachian mountains on the west. In order to assert their claims, they found several English, who had settled beyond these mountains, from motives of commerce, and also invited by the natural beauties of the country; they dispossessed them of their new settlements, and built such forts as would command the whole country round about. Not in America alone, but also in Asia, the seeds of a new war were preparing to be expanded. On the coasts of Malabar, the English and French, had, in fact, never ceased from hostilities.

The ministry, however, in England, began now a very vigorous exertion in defence of their colonies, who refused to defend themselves. Four operations were undertaken in America at the same time. Of these, one was commanded by colonel Monckton, who had orders to A. D. 1756. drive the French from the encroachments upon the province of Nova Scotia. The second, more to the south, was directed against Crown-point, under the command of general Johnson. The third, under the conduct of general Shirley, was destined to Niagara, to secure the forts on the river; and the fourth, was further southward still, against fort Du Quesne, under general Braddock.

In these expeditions Monckton was successful; Johnson also was victorious, though he failed in taking the fort against which he was sent; Shirley was thought to have lost the season for operation by delay; Braddock was vigorous and active, but suffered a defeat. This bold commander, who had been recommended to this service by the duke of Cumberland, set forward upon this expedition in June, and left the cultivated parts of the country on the 10th, at the head of two thousand two hundred men, directing his march to the part of that country where general Washington had been defeated the year before. Being at length within ten miles of the French fortress he was appointed to besiege, and marching forward through the forests with full confidence of success, on a sudden his whole army was astonished by a general discharge of arms, both in front and flank, from an enemy that still remained unseen. It was now too late to think of retreating; the troops had passed into the defile, which the enemy had artfully permitted them to do

before they offered to fire. The vanguard of the English now, therefore, fell back in consternation upon the main body, and the panic soon became general. The officers alone disdained to fly, while Braddock himself continued to command his brave associates, discovering at once the greatest intrepidity and the greatest imprudence. An enthusiast to the discipline of war, he disdained to fly from the field, or to permit his men to quit their ranks, when their only method of treating the Indian army was by a precipitate attack, or an immediate desertion of the field of battle. At length Braddock, having received a musket-shot through the lungs, dropped, and a total confusion ensued. All the artillery, ammunition, and baggage of the army was left to the enemy; and the loss sustained by the English army amounted to seven hundred men.

The murmurs, fears, and dissensions which this defeat gave rise to, gave the French an opportunity of carrying on their designs in another quarter. The island of Minorca, which we had taken from the Spaniards in the reign of queen Anne, was secured to England by repeated treaties. But the ministry at this time had neglected to take sufficient precautions for its defence. The French landed near the fortification of St. Philip's, which was reckoned one of the strongest in Europe, and commanded by general Blakeney, who was brave indeed, but rather superannuated. The siege was carried on with great vigour, and some time as obstinately defended on the side of the English; but the place was at length obliged to capitulate.

The ministry being apprized of this unexpected attack, resolved to raise the siege, if possible, and sent out admiral Byng, with ten ships of war, with orders to relieve Minorca at any rate. Byng accordingly sailed from Gibraltar, where he was refused any assistance of men from the governor of that garrison, under a pretence that his own fortification was in danger. Upon his approaching the island, he soon saw the French banners displayed upon the shore, and the English colours still flying on the castle of St. Philip. He had been ordered to throw a body of troops into the garrison, but this he thought too hazardous an undertaking, nor did he even make an attempt. While he was thus deliberating between his fears and his duty, his attention was quickly called off by the appearance of a French fleet, that seemed

of nearly equal force to his own. Confounded by a variety of measures, he seemed resolved to pursue none, and therefore gave orders to form the line of battle, and act upon the defensive. Byng had been long praised for his skill in naval tactics; and, perhaps, valuing most those talents for which he was most praised, he sacrificed all claims to courage, to the applause for naval discipline. The French fleet advanced, a part of the English fleet engaged, the admiral still kept aloof, and gave very plausible reasons for not coming into action. The French fleet, therefore, slowly sailed away, and no other opportunity ever offered of coming to a closer engagement.

Nothing could exceed the resentment of the nation upon being informed of Byng's conduct. The ministry were not averse to throwing from themselves the blame of those measures which were attended with such indifferent success, and they secretly fanned the flame. The news, which soon after arrived, of the surrender of the garrison to the French, drove the general ferment almost to a frenzy. In the mean time Byng continued at Gibraltar, quite satisfied with his own conduct, and little expecting the dreadful storm that was gathering against him at home. Orders, however, were soon sent out for putting him under an arrest, and for carrying him to England. Upon his arrival, he was committed to close custody, in Greenwich hospital, and some arts used to inflame the populace against him, who want no incentives to injure and condemn their superiors. Several addresses were sent up from different counties, demanding justice on the delinquent, which the ministry were willing to second. He was soon after tried by a court-martial, in the harbour of Portsmouth, where after a trial which continued several days, his judge agreed that he had not done his utmost during the engagement to destroy the enemy, and therefore they adjudged him to suffer death by the twelfth article of war. At the same time, however, they recommended him as an object of mercy, as they considered his conduct rather as the effects of error than of cowardice. By this sentence they expected to satisfy at once the resentment of the nation, and yet screen themselves from conscious severity. The government was resolved upon showing him no mercy; the parliament was applied to in his favour; but they found no circumstances in his conduct, that could invalidate the former



sentence. Being thus abandoned to his fate, he maintained to the last a degree of fortitude and serenity that no way betrayed any timidity or cowardice. On the day fixed for his execution, which was on board a man-of-war in the harbour of Portsmouth, he advanced from the cabin, where he had been imprisoned, upon deck, the place appointed for him to suffer. After delivering a paper, containing the strongest assertions of his innocence, he came forward to the place where he was to kneel down, and for some time persisted in not covering his face; but his friends representing that his looks would possibly intimidate the soldiers who were to shoot him, and prevent their taking proper aim, he had his eyes bound with a handkerchief; and then giving the signal for the soldiers to fire, he was killed instantaneously. There appears some severity in Byng's punishment; but it certainly produced soon after very beneficial effects to the nation.

In the progress of the war the forces of the contending powers of Europe were now drawn out in the following manner:—England opposed France in America, Asia, and on the ocean. France attacked Hanover on the continent of Europe. This country the king of Prussia undertook to protect; while England promised him troops and money to assist his operations. Then again Austria had her aims on the dominions of Prussia, and drew the elector of Saxony into the same designs. In these views she was seconded by France and Sweden, and by Russia, who had hopes of acquiring a settlement in the west of Europe.

The East was the quarter on which success first began to dawn upon the British arms. The affairs of the English seemed to gain the ascendancy, by the conduct of Mr. Clive. This gentleman had at first entered the company's service in a civil capacity, but finding his talents more adapted for war, he gave up his clerkship, and joined among the troops as a volunteer. His courage, which is all that subordinate officers can at first show, soon became remarkable; but his conduct, expedition, and military skill, soon after became so conspicuous as to raise him to the first rank in the army. The first advantage that was obtained from his activity and courage was, the clearing the province of Arcot. Soon after the French general was taken prisoner; and the nabob, whom the English supported, was reinstated in the government, of which he had formerly been deprived.

The prince of the greatest power in that country declared war against the English from motives of personal resentment, and, levying a numerous army, laid siege to Calcutta, one of the principal British forts in that part of the world ; but which was not in a state of strength to defend itself against the attack of even barbarians. The fort was taken, having being deserted by the commander ; and the garrison, to the number of an hundred and forty-six persons, were made prisoners. They expected the usual treatment of prisoners of war, and were therefore less vigorous in their defence : but they were all crowded together in a narrow prison, called the Black Hole, of about eighteen feet square, and received the air only by two small iron windows to the west, which by no means afforded a sufficient circulation. It is terrible to reflect on the situation of these unfortunate men, shut up in this narrow place, in the burning climate of the East, and suffocating each other. Their first efforts, upon perceiving the effect of their horrid confinement, were to break open the door of the prison ; but as it opened inward they soon found that impossible. They next endeavoured to excite the compassion or the avidity of the guard, by offering him a large sum of money for his assistance in removing them to separate prisons ; but with this he was not able to comply, as the viceroy was asleep, and no person dared to disturb him. They were now, therefore, left to die without hopes of relief ; and the whole prison was filled with groans, shrieks, contest, and despair. This turbulence, however, soon after sunk into a calm still more hideous ; their efforts of strength and courage were over, and an expiring langour succeeded. In the morning when the keepers came to visit the prison, all was horror, silence, and desolation. Of a hundred and forty-six who had entered alive, twenty-three only survived, and of these the greatest part died of putrid fevers upon being set free.

The destruction of this important fortress served to interrupt the prosperous successes of the English company ; but the fortune of Mr. Clive, backed by the activity of an English fleet under admiral Watson, still turned the scale in their favour. Among the number of those who felt the power of the English in this part of the world, was the famous Tullagee Angria, a piratical prince, who had long infested the Indian Ocean, and made the princes on the coast his

tributaries. He maintained a large number of galleys, and with these he attacked the largest ships, and almost ever with success. As the company had been greatly harassed by his depredations, they resolved to subdue such a dangerous enemy, and attacked him in his own fortress. In pursuance of this resolution, admiral Watson and colonel Clive sailed into his harbour of Geriah; and though they sustained a warm fire as they entered, yet they soon threw all his fleet into flames, and obliged his fort to surrender at discretion. The conquerors found there a large quantity of warlike stores, and effects to a considerable value.

Colonel Clive proceeded to take revenge for the cruelty practised upon the English. About the beginning of December, he arrived at Balasore, in the kingdom of Bengal. He met with little opposition either to the fleet or army, till they came before Calcutta, which seemed resolved to stand a regular siege. As soon as the admiral, with two ships, arrived before the town, he received a furious fire from all the batteries, which he soon returned with still greater execution, and in less than two hours obliged them to abandon their fortifications. By these means the English took possession of the two strongest settlements on the banks of the Ganges; but that of Geriah they demolished to the ground. Soon after these successes Hughly, a city of great trade, was reduced, with as little difficulty as the former, and all the viceroy of Bengal's storehouses and granaries were destroyed. In order to repair these losses, this barbarous prince assembled an army of ten thousand horse, and fifteen thousand foot, and professed a firm resolution of expelling the English from all their settlements in that part of the world. Upon the first intelligence of his march, colonel Clive obtaining a reinforcement of men from the admiral's ships, advanced with his little army to attack these numerous forces. He attacked the enemy in three columns, and though the numbers were so disproportioned, victory soon declared in favour of the English.

The English by these victories having placed a viceroy on the throne, for the Mogul had long lost all power in India, they took care to exact such stipulations in their own favour as would secure them the possession of the country, whenever they thought proper to resume their authority. From the conquest of the Indians colonel Clive turned to

the humbling of the French, who had long disputed empire in that part of the world, and soon dispossessed them of all their power and all their settlements.

In the mean time, while conquest beamed upon us from the East, it was still more splendid in the western world. But some alterations in the ministry led to those successes which had been long wished for by the nation, and were at length obtained. The affairs of war had hitherto been directed by a ministry but ill supported by the commons, timid and wavering, and but feebly held together, rather by their fears than their mutual confidence. When any new measure was proposed which could not receive their approbation, or any new member was introduced into government whom they did not appoint, they considered it as an infringement upon their respective departments, and threw up their places in disgust, with a view to resume them with greater lustre. Thus the strength of the crown was every day declining, while an aristocracy filled up every avenue to the throne, intent only on the emolument, not the duties, of office. This was at that time the general opinion of the people, and it was too loud not to reach the throne. The ministry that had hitherto hedged in the throne were at length obliged to admit some men into a share of the government, whose activity at least would counterbalance their timidity and irresolution. At the head of the newly-introduced party was the celebrated Mr. William Pitt, from whose vigour the nation formed very great expectations, and they were not deceived.

But though the old ministers were obliged to admit these new members into their society, there was no legal penalty for refusing to operate with them; they therefore associated with each other, and used every art to make their new assistants obnoxious to the king, upon whom they had been in a manner forced by the people. His former ministry flattered him in all his attachments to his German dominions, while the new had long clamoured against all continental connexions as utterly incompatible with the interest of the nation. These two opinions carried to the extreme might have been erroneous, but the king was naturally led to side with those who favoured his own sentiments, and to reject those who opposed them. Mr. Pitt, therefore, after being a few months in office, was ordered to resign by his majesty's

Command, and his coadjutor, Mr. Legge, was displaced from being chancellor of the exchequer. But this blow to his ambition was but of short continuance; the whole nation, almost to a man, seemed to rise up in his defence, and Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge, being restored to their former employments, the one as secretary of state, the other chancellor of the exchequer, began to act with vigour. \*

The consequences of the former ill-conducted counsels still seemed to continue in America. The generals sent over to manage the operations of the war, loudly accused the timidity and delays of the natives, whose duty it was to unite in their own defence. The natives on the other hand, as warmly expostulated against the pride, avarice, and incapacity of those sent over to command them. General Shirley, who had been appointed to the supreme command there, had been for some time recalled and replaced by lord Loudon; and this nobleman also soon after returning to England, three several commanders were put at the head of separate operations. General Amherst commanded that designed against the island of Cape Breton; the other was consigned to general Abercrombie, against Crown Point and Ticonderago; and the third, still more to the southward, against Fort du Quesne, commanded by brigadier-general Forbes.

Cape Breton, which had been taken from the French, during the preceding war, had been restored at the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was not till the English had been put in possession of that island that they began to perceive its advantageous situation, and the convenience of its harbour for annoying the British trade with impunity. It was also a convenient port for carrying on their fishery, a branch of commerce of the utmost benefit to that nation. The wresting it, therefore, once more from the hands of the French was a measure ardently desired by the whole nation. The fortress of Louisburg, by which it was defended, had been strengthened by the assistance of art, and was still better fortified from the nature of its situation. The garrison also was numerous, the commander vigilant, and every precaution taken to oppose a landing. An account of the operations of the siege can give but little pleasure in abridgment; be it sufficient to say, that the English surmounted every obstacle with great intrepidity. Their former

timidity and irresolution seemed to vanish, their natural courage and confidence returned, and the place surrendered by capitulation. The fortifications were soon after demolished, and rendered unfit for future protection.

The expedition to Fort du Quesne was equally successful, but that against Crown Point was once more defeated. This was now the second time that the English army had attempted to penetrate into those hideous wilds by which nature had secured the French possessions in that part of the world. Braddock fell in the attempt a martyr to his impetuosity: too much caution was equally injurious to his successor. Abercrombie spent much time in marching to the place of action, and the enemy were thus perfectly prepared to give them a severe reception. As he approached Ticonderago he found them deeply intrenched at the foot of the fort, and still farther secured by fallen trees, with their branches pointing against him. These difficulties the English ardour attempted to surmount; but as the enemy, being secure in themselves, took aim at leisure, a terrible carnage of the assailants ensued, and the general, after repeated efforts, was obliged to order a retreat. The English army, however, were still superior, and it was supposed that when the artillery was arrived, something more successful might be performed; but the general felt too sensibly the terrors of the late defeat to remain in the neighbourhood of a triumphant enemy. He therefore, withdrew his troops, and returned to his camp at Lake George, from whence he had taken his departure.

But though in this respect the English arms were unsuccessful, yet, upon the whole, the campaign was greatly in their favour. The taking of Fort du Quesne served to remove from their colonies the terror of the incursions of the Indians, while it interrupted that correspondence which ran along a chain of forts, with which the French had environed the English settlements in America. This, therefore, promised a fortunate campaign the next year, and vigorous measures were taken to ensure success. Accordingly, on the opening of the following year, the ministry, sensible that a single effort carried on in such an extensive country could never reduce the enemy, they resolved to attack them in several parts of their empire at once. Preparations were also made, and expeditions driven forward against three different

parts of North America at the same time. General Amherst, the commander in chief, with a body of twelve thousand men, was to attack Crown Point, that had hitherto been the reproach of the English army. General Wolfe was at the opposite quarter to enter the river St. Lawrence, and undertake the siege of Quebec, the capital of the French dominions in America; while general Prideaux and sir William Johnson were to attempt a French fort near the cataracts of Niagara.

The last-named expedition was the first that succeeded. The fort of Niagara was a place of great importance, and served to command all the communication between the northern and western French settlements. The siege was begun with vigour, and promised an easy conquest, but general Prideaux was killed on the trenches, by the bursting of a mortar; so that the whole command of the expedition devolved upon general Johnson, who omitted nothing to push forward the vigorous operations of his predecessor, to which he added his own popularity with the soldiers under him. A body of French troops, who were sensible of the importance of this fort, attempted to relieve it; but Johnson attacked them with intrepidity and success, for in less than an hour their whole army was put to the rout. The garrison soon after perceiving the fate of their countrymen, surrendered prisoners of war. The success of general Amherst was less splendid, though not less serviceable; upon arriving at the destined place he found the forts both of Crown Point and Ticonderago deserted and destroyed.

There now, therefore, remained but one grand and decisive blow to put all North America into the possession of the English; and this was the taking of Quebec, the capital of Canada, a city handsomely built, populous, and flourishing. Admiral Saunders was appointed to command the naval part of the expedition; the siege by land was committed to the conduct of general Wolfe, of whom the nation had great expectations. This young soldier, who was not yet thirty-five, had distinguished himself on many former occasions, particularly at the siege of Louisburgh; 1759. a part of the success of which was justly ascribed to him, who, without being indebted to family or connexions, had raised himself by merit to his present command.

The war in this part of the world had been hitherto carried on with extreme barbarity; and retaliating murders were continued without any one's knowing who first began. Wolfe, however, disdaining to imitate such example, carried on the war with all the spirit of humanity which it admits of. It is not our aim to enter into a minute detail of the siege of this city, which could at best only give amusement to a few; it will be sufficient to say, that when we consider the situation of the town, on the side of a great river, the fortifications with which it was secured, the natural strength of the country, and the great number of vessels and floating batteries the enemy had provided for the defence of the river, and the numerous bodies of savages continually hovering round the English army, we must own there was such a combination of difficulties as might discourage and perplex the most resolute commander. The only prospect of attempting the town with success was by landing a body of troops in the night below the town, who were to clamber up the banks of the river, and take possession of the ground on the back of the city. This attempt however, appeared peculiarly discouraging. The stream was rapid, the shore shelving, the bank above lined with sentinels, the landing-place so narrow as to be easily missed in the dark, and the steepness of the ground such as hardly to be surmounted in the day-time. All these difficulties, however, were surmounted by the conduct of the general, and the bravery of the men. Colonel How, with the light infantry and the Highlanders, ascended the woody precipices with admirable courage and activity, and dislodged a small body of troops that defended a narrow pathway up the bank: thus a few mounting, the general drew the rest up in order as they arrived. Monsieur de Montcalm, the French commander, was no sooner apprized that the English had gained these heights, which he had confidently deemed inaccessible, than he resolved to hazard a battle; and a furious encounter quickly begun. This was one of the most desperate engagements during this war. The French general was slain; the second in command shared the same fate. General Wolfe was stationed on the right, where the attack was most warm; as he stood conspicuous in the front line, he had been aimed at by the enemy's marksmen, and received a shot in the wrist, which, however, did not oblige him to quit the field.



Having wrapped a handkerchief round his hand, he continued giving orders without the least emotion, and advanced at the head of the grenadiers with their bayonets fixed; but a second ball more fatal, pierced his breast; so that, unable to proceed, he leaned on the shoulder of a soldier who was near him. Now struggling in the agonies of death, and just expiring, he heard a voice cry, "They run!" upon which he seemed for a moment to revive, and asking who ran, was informed the French. Expressing his wonder that they ran so soon, and unable to gaze any longer, he sunk on the soldier's breast, and his last words were, "I die happy."

The surrender of Quebec was the consequence of this victory; and with it soon after the total cession of all Canada. The French, indeed, the following season made a vigorous effort to retake the city; but by the resolution of governor Murray, and appearance of an English fleet under the command of lord Colville, they were obliged to abandon the enterprise. The whole province was soon after reduced by the prudence and activity of general Amherst, who obliged the French army to capitulate, and it has since remained annexed to the British empire. To these conquests about the same time was added the reduction of the island of Guadaloupe, under commodore More and general Boscawen, an acquisition of great importance: but which was restored at the succeeding peace. These successes in India and America were great, though achieved by no very expensive efforts: on the contrary, the efforts the English made in Europe, and the operations of their great ally, the king of Prussia, were astonishing, yet produced no signal advantages.

England was all this time happily retired from the miseries which oppressed the rest of Europe; yet from her natural military ardour she seemed desirous of sharing those dangers, of which she was only a spectator. This passion for sharing in a continental war was not less pleasing to the king of England, from his native attachments, than from a desire of revenge upon the plunderers of his country. As soon therefore as it was known that prince Ferdinand had put himself at the head of the Hanoverian army, to assist the king of Prussia, his Britannic majesty, in a speech to his parliament, observed that the late successes of his ally in Germany had given a happy turn to his affairs; which it would be necessary to improve. The commons concurred in

his sentiments, and liberally granted supplies both for the service of the king of Prussia, and for enabling the army formed in Hanover to act vigorously in conjunction with him.

From sending money over into Germany, the nation began to extend their benefits; and it was soon considered that men would be a more grateful supply. Mr. Pitt, who had at first come into popularity and power by opposing such measures, was now prevailed on to enter into them with even greater ardour than any of his predecessors. The hopes of putting a speedy end to the war by vigorous measures, the connexions with which he was obliged to co-operate, and perhaps the pleasure he found in pleasing the king, all together incited him to push forward a continental war. However, he only conspired with the general inclinations of the people at this time, who, allured by the noble efforts of their only ally, were unwilling to see him fall a sacrifice to the united ambition of his enemies.

In order to indulge this general inclination of assisting the king of Prussia, the duke of Marlborough was at first sent into Germany with a small body of British forces to join prince Ferdinand, whose activity against the French began to be crowned with success. After some small successes gained by the allied army at Crevelt, the duke of Marlborough dying, his command devolved upon lord George Sackville, who was at that time a favourite with the English army. However, a misunderstanding between him and the commander in chief unfortunately took place at the battle of Minden, which was fought soon after. The cause of this secret disgust on both sides, is not clearly known; it is thought that the extensive genius, and the inquisitive spirit of the English general, were by no means agreeable to his superior in command, who hoped to reap some pecuniary advantages the other was unwilling to permit. Be this as it will, both armies advancing near the town of Minden, the French began the attack with great vigour, and a general engagement of the infantry ensued. Lord George, at the head of the British and Hanoverian horse, was stationed at some distance on the right of the infantry, from which they were divided by a scanty wood that bordered on a heath. The French infantry giving ground, the prince thought that this would be a favourable opportunity to pour down the

horse among them, and accordingly sent lord George orders to come on. These orders were but ill obeyed; and whether they were unintelligible or contradictory, still remains a point for posterity to debate upon. It is certain that lord George was shortly after recalled, tried by a court-martial, found guilty, and declared incapable of serving in any military command for the future. The enemy, however, were repulsed in all their attacks, with considerable loss, and at length giving way, were pursued to the very ramparts of Minden.

After these victories, which were greatly magnified in England, it was supposed that one reinforcement more of British troops would terminate the war in favour of the allies, and a reinforcement was quickly sent. The British army in Germany now, therefore, amounted to above thirty thousand men, and the whole nation was flushed with the hopes of immediate conquest. But these hopes soon vanished in finding victory and defeat successively following each other. The allies were worsted at Corbach; but retrieved their honour at Exdorf. A victory at Warbourg followed shortly after, and another at Zirenberg; but then they suffered a defeat at Compen, after which both sides went into winter-quarters. The successes thus on either side might be considered as a compact by which both engaged to lose much, and gain little; for no advantages whatever followed from victory. The English at length began to open their eyes to their own interest, and found that they were waging unequal war, and loading themselves with taxes for conquests that they could neither preserve nor enjoy.

It must be confessed, that the efforts of England at this time, over every part of the globe, were amazing: and the expense of her operations greater than had ever been disbursed by any nation before. The king of Prussia received a subsidy; a large body of English forces commanded the extensive peninsula of India; another army of twenty thousand men confirmed their conquests in North America; there were thirty thousand men employed in Germany, and several other bodies dispersed in different garrisons in various parts of the world: but all these were nothing to the force maintained at sea, which carried command wherever it came, and had totally annihilated the French power on that element. The courage and the conduct of the English admirals had

surpassed whatever had been read of in history; neither superior force, nor number, nor even the terrors of tempest could intimidate them. Admiral Hawke gained a complete victory over an equal number of French ships, on the coast of Bretagne, in Quiberon Bay, in the midst of a tempest, during the darkness of the night, and, what a seaman fears still more, upon a rocky shore.

Such was the glorious figure the British nation appeared in to all the world at this time. But while their arms prospered in every effort tending to the real interests of the nation, an event happened, which for a while obscured the splendour of her victories. On the twenty-fifth of October, the king, without having complained of any previous disorder, was found by his domestics expiring in his chamber. He had arisen at his usual hour, and observed to his attendants, that as the weather was fine he would take a walk in the gardens of Kensington, where he then resided. In a few minutes after his return, being left alone, he was heard to fall down upon the floor. The noise of this bringing his attendants into the room, they lifted him into bed, where he desired, with a faint voice, that the princess Amelia might be sent for, but before she could reach the apartment he expired. An attempt was made to bleed him, but without effect; and afterwards the surgeons, upon opening him, discovered that the right ventricle of the heart was actually ruptured; and that a great quantity of blood was discharged through the aperture.

George the Second died in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign; Oct. 25, 1760. lamented by his subjects, and in the midst of victory: If any monarch was happy in the peculiar mode of his death, and the precise time of its arrival, it was he. The universal enthusiasm of the people for conquest was now beginning to subside, and sober reason to take her turn in the administration of affairs. The factions which had been nursing during his long reign, had not yet come to maturity; but threatened, with all their virulence, to afflict his successor. He was, himself, of no shining abilities; and while he was permitted to guide and assist his German dominions, he intrusted the care of Britain to his ministers at home. His character is thus delivered by two writers of opposite opinions.

## HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

On whatever side," says his panegyrist, "we look upon his character, we shall find ample matter for just and unsuspecting praise. None of his predecessors on the throne of England lived to so great an age, or enjoyed longer felicity. His subjects were still improving under him in commerce and arts; and his own economy set a prudent example to the nation, which, however, they did not follow. He was in his temper sadder and violent; but this, though it influenced his conduct, made no change in his behaviour, which was generally guided by reason. He was plain and direct in his intentions, true to his word, steady in his favour and protection to his servants, not parting even with his ministers till compelled to it by the violence of faction. In short, through the whole of his life, he appeared rather to live for the cultivation of useful virtues than splendid ones; and satisfied with being good, left others their unenvied greatness."

Such is the picture given by his friends, but there are others who reverse the medal. As to the extent of his understanding, or the splendour of his virtues, we rather wish for opportunities of praise, than undertake the task ourselves. His public character was marked with a predilection for his native country, and to that he sacrificed all other considerations. He was not only unlearned himself, but he despised learning in others; and though genius might have flourished in his reign, yet he neither promoted it by his influence nor his example. His frugality bordered upon avarice, and he hoarded not for his subjects, but himself. He was remarkable for no one great virtue, and was known to practise several of the meaner vices." Which of these two characters are true, or whether they may not in part be both so, I will not pretend to decide. If his favourites are numerous, so are those who oppose them; let posterity therefore, decide the contest.

### CHAPTER XXXVII

GEORGE III. — 1760 — 1820.

George the Second was succeeded by his grandson king George the Third, whose father never ascended the throne, having died while he was only prince of Wales. His ma-

jeaty's first care, after his accession, was to assemble the parliament, which met in November, and settled the annual sum of 800,000*l.* upon the king for the support of his household, and for the honour and dignity of his crown, or, as it is usually called, the civil list. The whole supply, for the service of the ensuing year, amounted to 19,616,119*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.*; an immense sum which none but a commercial nation could raise, but which yet perhaps was not greater than was absolutely necessary for carrying on the various operations of the very extensive war in which we were then engaged.

As his majesty could not espouse a Roman Catholic, he was precluded from intermarrying into any of the great families of Europe; he therefore chose a wife from the house of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, the head of a small but sovereign state in the north-west of Germany; and the nuptials were celebrated on the eighth of September; and on the twenty-second of the same month the ceremony of <sup>A. D.</sup> the coronation was performed with great pomp and <sup>1761.</sup> magnificence in Westminster-abbey.

This year was not distinguished by any capital military operation in Europe. In the East Indies the nabob of Bengal was deposed, and his son-in-law advanced in his room. That country, like all other barbarous countries, is subject to sudden revolutions, for which perhaps it is not more remarkable than for the acts of cruelty, peculation, and oppression that are there practised by the Europeans.

Mr. Pitt, who, though never very acceptable to the late king, had conducted the war with a spirit and success not exceeded, and perhaps never equalled, by any former minister, was no less distinguished for his sagacity and penetration in diving into the designs and intrigues of the enemy. He had for some time observed, with the highest indignation, the extreme partiality of the Spaniards towards the French, notwithstanding their professions of neutrality: he now discovered by means of his spies in foreign courts, that they had entered into a treaty (known by the name of the Family Compact) with that ambitious people; and he was firmly convinced, that it would not be long before they declared war in form against England. Moved by these considerations, he proposed, that a fleet should be immediately despatched into the Mediterranean, to intercept the Spanish flotilla, or strike some other blow of importance, in case the

ministry of Spain refused to give instant satisfaction to the cabinet of Great Britain. This proposal was strongly opposed by the other members of the cabinet, either from a conviction of its impropriety, or perhaps in order to get rid of a minister, who, by means of his popularity, and the success of his schemes, had acquired an ascendancy in parliament, and even in the council, that, in some measure, annihilated the hereditary influence of all the oldest, most wealthy, and most powerful families in the kingdom. In a word, it was disapproved by every member of the cabinet, Mr. Pitt, and earl Temple excepted; upon which these two ministers resigned their places; the former, as secretary of state; and the latter, as lord privy-seal. That Mr. Pitt however might not be suffered to retire from the public service without some mark of royal as well national gratitude, a pension of 3000*l.* a-year, was settled upon him for three lives; and at the same time a title was conferred upon his lady, who was created baroness Chatham.

The experience of a few months served to show that Mr. Pitt's suspicions were too well founded; for when the earl of Bristol, the British ambassador at Madrid, endeavoured to procure a sight of the Family-compact, and to sound the sentiments of the Spanish ministry with regard to their intention of taking part with France in the present war, he received nothing but evasive answers, or flat refusals to all his demands. He therefore left Madrid without taking leave; and as the hostile designs of Spain were now no longer doubtful, war was, in a little time, declared against that nation.

The old parliament was now dissolved, and a new one summoned, one of the first acts of which was to settle an annuity of 100,000*l.* together with the palace of Somerset-house (afterwards exchanged for Buckingham-house), and the lodge and lands of Richmond old park, upon the queen during her life, in case she should survive his majesty. The supply for the ensuing year, fell short of that of the current one by somewhat more than a million.

Till the resignation of Mr. Pitt, no material change had been made in the ministry during the present reign. It continued nearly the same as it was at the death of the late king, with this only difference, that lord Bute (who was supposed to be a particular favourite of his majesty) had

been introduced into the cabinet, and appointed secretary of state in the room of the earl of Holderness. A more important alteration, however, now took place in it. An opinion had been long entertained, at least it was A. D. 1762 very industriously propagated by certain persons, that the Pelham family had been as complete masters of the cabinet during the latter years of king George the Second's reign, as ever the Marlborough family was during a part of that of queen Anne. A resolution, it is said, was therefore taken to get rid of the Pelhams and all their connexions. The duke of Newcastle was made so uneasy in his situation, that he resigned his post of first lord of the Treasury, and was succeeded by the earl of Bute. This gave occasion to a most furious paper war between the friends and adherents of those two noblemen, and naturally tended to revive in the kingdom the spirit of party.

The duke of Newcastle, it must be owned, was not a man of great abilities, though his brother, Henry Pelham, undoubtedly was. But even the duke, with all the defects in his character, was perhaps not ill-qualified to be a popular minister in a free country. He was open, liberal, disinterested, hospitable, splendid and magnificent in his style of living. Instead of amassing places and pensions for himself and his family, he laid out his own patrimony in supporting what he considered as the honour of the king and the dignity of the nation; and when, upon his retiring from office in somewhat narrow and reduced circumstances, he was offered a pension, he nobly replied, that after having spent a princely fortune in the service of his country, rather than become a burden to it at last, he would make his old duchess a washerwoman.

Lord Bute, on the other hand, was certainly a man of ability, and we believe even of virtue; but perhaps he was deficient in that easiness of address, and those engaging manners, without which no minister can ever expect to be long popular in England. As he was a man of taste and learning, had he continued groom of the stole, which place he held at the time of his majesty's accession, he might easily have passed for the Mæcenas of the age. Every favour which the king might have bestowed upon men of letters, would have been considered as originating from his advice, and owing to his recommendation; whereas by plunging



into politics, for which he was but ill qualified, he at once diminished for a while the popularity of his sovereign, and perplexed the councils of his country.

The war, however, was still carried on with the same spirit and success as formerly. Two expeditions were undertaken against the Spanish settlements; the one against the Havannah, in the gulf of Mexico, the other against Manilla, in the East Indies; and both of them proved successful. The plunder found in the first amounted to three millions sterling; the latter was ransomed for one million, which was never paid. The king of Prussia, then our principal, and indeed almost our only ally, had performed such prodigies of valour in the course of this war, as will transmit his name to posterity as one of the greatest heroes that ever lived. For some time past, however, he had been surrounded and assailed by such a number of powerful and inveterate foes, that he seemed almost to be tottering on the very brink of ruin, when he was unexpectedly and almost miraculously, saved by one of those sudden revolutions of fortune that sometimes take place in all countries, and are often attended with consequences that no human sagacity could have foreseen, nor any human power have possibly brought about. Elizabeth, the empress of Russia, dying, was succeeded by her nephew, Peter the Third, who not only concluded a peace with the king of Prussia, but joining his arms to those of that monarch, began to act hostilely against his former allies. By this step, however, and some others, he rendered himself so unpopular with his subjects, that, after wearing the crown for the space of six months, he was deposed, and soon after died in prison of the disease, it is thought, which terminates the lives of most dethroned monarchs. His consort and successor, Catherine, departed so far from the plan of her husband as to withdraw her forces from those of the king of Prussia; but she did not think proper to renew hostilities against him. Being thus freed from one of his most formidable enemies, he was the more capable of coping with the rest.

This was one of the most glorious and successful wars for Great Britain that had ever been carried on in any age, or by any nation. In the space of seven years, she had made herself mistress of the whole continent of North America: she had conquered twenty-five islands, all of them remark-

able for their magnitude, their produce, or the importance of their situation: she had won, by sea and land, twelve great battles; she had reduced nine fortified cities and towns, and near forty forts and castles; she had destroyed or taken above an hundred ships of war from her enemies; and acquired, as is supposed, about twelve millions in plunder. Uncommon, however, as were her successes, she was far from being averse to a peace. The grand object for which the war had been originally undertaken, the security of our American colonies, was now fully accomplished. Her supplies of money, however great, were by no means equal to her expenses; and she began to feel a sensible deficiency in her supplies of men, which were not procured but with some difficulty, and at a heavy charge. The other belligerent powers, for more solid and substantial reasons, were still more inclined to peace. The navy of France was almost annihilated; and her dominions were exhausted of men and money. Spain had nothing to hope, but every thing to fear from a continuance of the war; and Portugal, who had lately been drawn into the quarrel, and attacked by the Bourbon family, was in a still worse condition. All parties, therefore, concurring in these pacific sentiments, conferences for a peace were opened at Paris; and, after some negotiations, it was finally concluded on the 10th day of February. Great Britain received Florida in exchange for the Havannah. She retained Canada, Cape Breton, Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, the Grenadcs, and Senegal on the coast of Africa; but she restored all her other conquests. A peace was soon after concluded between the empress-queen of Hungary and his Prussian majesty; and thus the general tranquillity of Europe was happily re-established. At the conclusion of the war, the national debt of Great Britain amounted to about one hundred and forty-eight millions; the annual interest to little less than five millions.

The cry of favouritism, which was raised against lord Bute, immediately upon his introduction into the ministry, had hitherto been kept up with great violence and animosity; and a tax which had lately been imposed upon cider served at last to complete his downfall. He resigned his place as first lord of the Treasury in the month of April, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville. The attention of the

A. D.  
1763.

public was now turned from the war of the sword to that of the pen. Many furious papers and pamphlets were published by the partisans of both parties. But one of the most furious of the whole was a periodical paper, entitled the North Briton, conducted, it is said, and principally composed by Mr. Wilkes, member for Aylesbury, a gentleman of wit and spirit, but not of the most rigid principles. This gentleman having, in number 45 of the North Briton, attacked the king's speech to the parliament with a very indecent freedom, a general warrant was issued for taking up the authors, printers, and publishers of that paper. Mr. Wilkes was seized and committed to the Tower. Several innocent printers were at the same time apprehended; but they afterwards brought their actions against the messengers who had seized them, and recovered considerable damages. Mr. Wilkes, too, upon bringing his *habeas-corpus* before the court of common-pleas, was released from the Tower by a decision of that court, which declared, that privilege of parliament extended to the case of writing a libel. The house of commons were of a different opinion. They resolved that number 45 of the North Briton was a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and that privilege of parliament did not extend to the case of writing such a libel. Soon after Mr. Wilkes fought a duel with Mr. Martin, a member of parliament, and late secretary to the Treasury, whose character he had attacked in his writings. In this engagement he received a dangerous wound, from which, however, he recovered, and he had no sooner done so, than he thought proper to retire into France. In the month of January he

A. D. 1764. was expelled the house of commons; and not appearing to the indictments preferred against him for publishing the North Briton, and for some other charges, he was at last run to an outlawry; and the suits, which he had commenced against the secretaries of state for false imprisonment, fell, of course, to the ground. General warrants were afterwards declared to be illegal by a resolution of both houses; and this, indeed, seems to be the chief advantage resulting from this violent dispute between Mr. Wilkes and the ministry. In the course of the year the protestant interest was still further strengthened by the marriage of his majesty's eldest sister, the princess Augusta, to the hereditary prince of Brunswick.

Little happened in the other parts of the world this year that deserves to be mentioned in a History of England, except the choice of a king of Poland in the person of count Poniatowski, a native Pole; the death of prince Ivan, or John, who in 1739 had mounted the throne of Russia, and was soon after deposed, who had remained in prison ever since, and was now murdered by his guards; and the massacre of about forty of our own countrymen in the East Indies, by order of Cossim Ali Cawn, the deposed subah of Bengal, and under the direction of one Somers, a German, a deserter from the company's service. Such scenes of cruelty may naturally be supposed to happen sometimes in a country, where the natives are ignorant and barbarous, and the strangers, or as they call them, the intruders, are actuated by an insatiable spirit of plunder and rapacity.

In the beginning of next year were kindled the first sparks of that fire, which, though it did not blaze out all at once, and might even have been extinguished in its progress, yet, in a little time after, broke out into a conflagration, that wrapt a great part of Europe, and all North America in its flames. What I allude to is the stamp-act, that was now imposed upon our American colonies, and to which they almost unanimously refused to submit; and though it was repealed in the succeeding session, yet they seem never entirely to have forgot, nor heartily to have forgiven it.

The spirit of party which was now so general as well as violent, was attended with one very great inconvenience. It was productive of such a mutability in public men, and consequently in public measures and councils, that we had a new ministry and new measures almost with every new year. This naturally tended to weaken the authority of government, both at home and abroad. Foreign nations were averse to enter into any close connexion or alliance with a people, whose public councils were so very fluctuating; and the inferior ranks of men at home lost all that reverence and respect for their rulers, which is so necessary to the support of order and good government. The Grenville administration was now forced to make way for that of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord of the treasury in the room of Mr. Grenville. The marquis himself, indeed, was a nobleman of as much purity of inten-

A. D.  
1765.

tion, of as disinterested principles, and of as genuine and unaffected patriotism, as ever distinguished any minister either in ancient or modern times; and by these good qualities of his heart, he, in some measure, compensated for that mediocrity of understanding, beyond which even his warmest admirers never alleged that his capacity extended. The chief business of this ministry was to undo all that their predecessors had done, particularly repealing the stamp and cider acts; as, on the other hand, all that they now did, was, in its turn, undone by their successors in office. The detached events of this year were neither numerous nor important; it was chiefly distinguished by the death of some eminent personages, particularly of the emperor of Germany, who was succeeded by his son Joseph, the dauphin of France; his majesty's uncle, the duke of Cumberland; his youngest brother, prince William Frederic; and the old Pretender, who died at Rome in the seventy-seventh year of his age.

A. D. 1766. The new year, as usual, gave a new set of ministers. The duke of Grafton succeeded the marquis of Rockingham as first lord of the treasury; several other changes were made in the inferior departments of the state; and the custody of the privy-seal was bestowed upon Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, at whose recommendation, it is said, this ministry was formed. The affairs of the East India company were at this time greatly embarrassed by the avarice and rapacity of their servants; under the specious pretence of presents, they had got into the habit of extorting large sums from the princes of the country, by which means the very name of an Englishman was become so odious, that it was greatly to be feared a general combination of the natives would be formed to expel us from our settlements in that part of the world. Lord Clive, therefore, was sent out to India, in order to put a stop to this growing evil, which, upon his arrival there, he effectually did; and soon after concluded an advantageous treaty with the Mogul, which put the company in possession of a clear revenue of one million seven hundred thousand pounds sterling a-year. His lordship himself, it is true, had made as large a fortune in the East Indies as perhaps ever was made there by any other British, or European subject; but at the same time, in doing so, he had performed the most signal and important services

to his country, while others amassed princely fortunes without benefit either to their country, or to the East India company.

As the American war was a most important event, no circumstance, however seemingly trivial, that serves to mark the progress of the growing animosity between the mother country and her colonies, ought to be passed over in silence. For this reason it is, that we shall just observe, that an act of parliament had been lately made, enjoining the colonies to furnish his majesty's troops with necessaries in their quarters. This act the colony of New York had refused to obey; and another act was now therefore passed, restraining the assembly of that province from making any laws until they had complied with the terms of the first-mentioned statute. The Americans, on their side, expressed their dissatisfaction at this restraint, by coming to severe resolutions against the importation of European, by which they no doubt meant British, commodities.

The natural date of the present parliament being now near expiring, it was dissolved in the spring, and writs were issued for electing a new one. A general election is always a time of riot and confusion; and, considering the violence of parties, it was generally apprehended, that the present would be productive of more than ordinary disturbance. These fears, however, were happily disappointed. The elections were carried on with tolerable order in most parts of the kingdom, except at Preston, and a few other places, where some outrages were committed. Mr. Wilkes, who had remained abroad an outlaw ever since the year 1763, now returned home, and even while the outlawry was in full force, offered himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex, for which he was chosen in opposition to sir William Beauchamp Proctor, one of the former members, by a very great majority. Great doubts were at first entertained whether an outlaw could be chosen member of parliament; but so many precedents were produced in the affirmative, that the legality of the practice was put beyond controversy. Being now secure, as he thought, of a seat in parliament, Mr. Wilkes surrendered himself to the court of king's-bench, by whom the outlawry was reversed, and he was sentenced to suffer an imprison-

ment of two years, and to pay a ~~fine~~ of one thousand pounds. As he was esteemed by many persons a kind of martyr in the cause of public liberty, a subscription was opened by some merchants of London, and other gentlemen of property, for paying his fine, supporting him while in prison, and compounding his debts, amounting to above twenty thousand pounds; and all these purposes were, in the end, completely accomplished.

- As we consider the Middlesex election, and the feuds and animosities which it excited in the nation, though not as the primary, yet as the great secondary cause of the American war, we shall be particularly attentive to every circumstance relating to that singular transaction, and even to Mr. Wilkes, the principal agent concerned in it. This, indeed, is the great hinge upon which the political events of the present reign for many years turned; it is that which gave occasion to sudden changes of ministers, and dangerous resolutions of parliament, that would never else have taken place; and it encouraged our foreign dependencies to take advantage of our internal divisions, and the consequent weakness and unpopularity of government, by laying claim to several privileges and immunities, to which they would otherwise have never dared to pretend.

This year his majesty established the Royal Academy of Arts, for instructing young men in the principles of architecture, sculpture, and painting. The artists had, long before this, formed themselves into a society, and had carried their respective arts to a very high degree of perfection under the patronage of the public. The new institution, therefore, had for some time little other effect than to split the artists into parties. At last, however, they were happily reunited.

Fresh fuel still continued to be added to the flame that now began to blaze out between Great Britain and her American colonies. By an act of parliament lately passed, certain duties were imposed upon glass, paper, and a few other articles imported from England into the colonies; and for the purpose of collecting these duties, custom-houses were established in their seaports. Provoked at this invasion of their liberties, as they considered it, they now came to a direct, as they had formerly done to an indirect, resolution to discontinue the use of British commodities, until

these duties should be repealed; to effect which, the assembly of Boston wrote circular letters to all the other assemblies, proposing an union of councils and measures. For this step the assembly of Boston was dissolved, and a new one convened; but this proved as refractory as the former, and was therefore in a little time, likewise dissolved. The commissioners of the customs were so roughly handled by the populace, that they thought proper to leave the town, and retire to Fort William. In a word, the spirit of discontent became so prevalent at Boston, that two regiments of foot were ordered thither from Halifax, and as many\*from Ireland. A new phenomenon appeared in Asia. One Hyder Ally, who had raised himself from the rank of a common seapoy to that of a sovereign prince, commenced hostilities against the East India company, and in the course of his reign, gave greater disturbance to our settlements there, than any of the old and hereditary nabobs.

When the new parliament met, the people imagined that Mr. Wilkes would take his seat along with the other members. In expectation of this many of them assembled in St. George's fields, near the king's bench prison, where he was confined, with a view of conducting him to the house of commons. The Surry justices soon came among them, and the riot-act was read; but the people not dispersing, the military were called in, and were ordered, perhaps unadvisedly, to fire. Several persons were slightly wounded, two or three mortally, and one was killed on the spot. Lord Weymouth, one of the secretaries of state, sent a letter to the justices, thanking them for their spirited conduct in this affair. Mr. Wilkes, who was no unconcerned spectator of the whole scene, took this opportunity of expressing his resentment against the ministry, whom he regarded as the authors of all the persecutions he had suffered. He published lord Weymouth's letter, with a few remarks of his own prefixed to it, in which he termed the affair in St. George's-fields a horrid massacre; and this step was either considered as a reason, or was made a pretence, for expelling him the house. The freeholders of Middlesex, however, immediately and unanimously re-elected him their representative. This election was declared void, and a new writ was issued. The freeholders still persevered in their former sentiments; and Mr. Wilkes was

A. D.  
1769.



elected a third time without opposition. A gentleman indeed, of the name of Dingley, intended to have opposed him; but the popular current ran so strong in favour of Mr. Wilkes, that he could not find a single person to put him in nomination. This election was declared void, as well as the preceding; and lest the freeholders of Middlesex and the house of commons should go on for ever, the one in electing Mr. Wilkes, and the other in declaring his election invalid, colonel Luttrell, son to lord Ingham, and a member of parliament, was persuaded to vacate his seat, and to offer himself a candidate; and though he had only 296 votes, and Mr. Wilkes 1143, yet he was declared in the house, by a great majority, to be the legal member.

This was considered as a fatal blow to the liberties of the people, at least to the right of election, the most vital and essential part of those liberties. This poured poison into the political wound, that rendered it perfectly incurable. The Middlesex election may hitherto be regarded merely as a common controverted election, in which none but Mr. Wilkes and his opponents were concerned; from this time forward it assumed a more important aspect. Instead of a private it became a national concern. The whole body of the people took the alarm. They thought they foresaw, in the destruction of the rights of the freeholders of Middlesex, the utter ruin and subversion of their own. The consequence was, that petitions first, and remonstrances afterwards, poured in from the different counties and corporations of the kingdom. Many of these were of a very bold, and some of a most daring nature. They not only prayed for a dissolution of parliament, but they even denied the legality of the present one, the validity of its acts, and the obligation of the people to obey them. In a word they asserted that the government was actually dissolved.

A. D. 1770. The ministry had now brought themselves into a most disagreeable dilemma. They ought either not to have proceeded so far, or they ought to have gone farther. They ought either not to have furnished the people with a just cause, nor even with a plausible pretence for presenting such remonstrances, or they ought to have punished them for daring to present them. This however, they did not think it prudent, nor perhaps even safe, to attempt. The consequence is obvious. While the authority

of government was thus vilified and despised at home, can it be imagined that it should be much revered or respected abroad? While it was openly insulted and brow-beat in the very metropolis, and under the eye of the legislature, could it be expected, that it should be able to maintain its usual force and vigour in the extreme parts of the empire? The supposition is absurd. He, therefore, who does not perceive, in the rashness and pusillanimity of the ministers with regard to the Middlesex election, the seeds of the American war, must be furnished with optics of a very singular, and in our opinion, a very unnatural structure. Some of the freeholders of Middlesex even attempted to carry their speculative principles on this subject into practice. They refused to pay the land-tax; and the matter was brought to a trial. But the jury determined, that they were obliged to pay it; and, in so doing, they discovered more firmness and fortitude than their rulers.

In the course of this year a very important act was passed for regulating the proceedings of the house of commons in controverted elections.\* These used formerly to be determined by the house at large, and by a majority of votes, so that they were considered merely as party-matters, and the strongest party, which was always that of the ministry, was sure to carry the point without paying the least regard to the merits of the question on either side. But by the bill which was now passed, commonly called the Grenville act, as it was drawn up and brought in by Mr. Grenville, they were ordered for the future to be decided by a committee of thirteen members chosen by lot, and under the sacred obligations of an oath; and since the enacting of this law, no well-grounded complaint has been made against the impartiality of their decisions.

Though the present ministry were supposed to have been originally recommended to his majesty by lord Chatham, and to have been guided for some time, in all their measures, by his advice, yet, as they had of late affected to stand upon their own bottom, and neglected to consult him as usual, he entirely abandoned them and resigned his office as keeper of the privy-seal which was bestowed on the earl of Bristol. His example was soon followed by the duke of Grafton, who was succeeded as first lord of the treasury by lord North; and thus, unhappily for the nation, was formed that ministry.

which began the American war without necessity, conducted it without spirit or prudence, and at last concluded it without honour or advantage, nay with infinite dishonour and disadvantage, as they cut off from the empire the immense continent of North America, the brightest jewel in the crown.

This year our ministers gave a fresh proof of their pusillanimity with regard to foreign politics, as they had already done with respect to our domestic concerns. They quietly suffered the French to make a conquest of Corsica, a small island in the Mediterranean. This island had formerly belonged to the Genoese, who, by their cruelty and oppression, had driven the natives into a revolt, which they kept up for some time with great spirit and perseverance, under the conduct of their gallant countrymen Paoli, and at last freed themselves, from the dominion of their tyrannical masters. These last, therefore, unable to recover the island themselves made it over to the French, who soon subdued it; though not, it is said, till it had cost them more than its real value. They lost in this undertaking ten thousand men, and they expended eighteen millions of livres. Many people thought the English ought to have opposed this addition, however small, to the French monarchy; but our ministers were so weak and unpopular, and the growing quarrel between this country and America became every day so much more alarming, that their maxim at this time, with regard to foreign nations, seems to have been, Let us alone, and we will let you alone. The French, however, soon after showed them that their conduct was directed by very different maxims. About the same time a rupture had like to have happened between this country and Spain, about a very insignificant place, called Falkland's Island, in the southern part of the Atlantic ocean. Matters for some time wore a very hostile aspect; but at last the quarrel was amicably adjusted.

A. D. 1771. The Middlesex election, though the spirit of petitioning had in some measure subsided, still gave rise to some singular occurrences that are well worthy of notice. A messenger of the house of commons having come into the city to seize a printer for publishing the speeches of the members, this last sent for a constable, who carried both him and the messenger before Mr. Crosby the

lord-mayor. That gentleman, together with the aldermen Wilkes and Oliver, not only discharged the printer, but required the messenger to give bail to answer the complaint of the printer against him, for daring to seize him in the city without the order of a magistrate ; and upon his refusing to do so, they signed a warrant for his commitment to prison ; upon which he consented to give bail, and was suffered to depart. The commons fired at this contempt of their authority, as they thought it, ordered the lord-mayor and the two aldermen to appear before them. Mr. Crosby and Mr. Oliver, as members of the house, attended, and in their place ; but Mr. Wilkes refused to appear, unless he was permitted to take his seat for Middlesex. As they had no method of coming at the latter gentleman, they contented themselves with punishing the two former. They were accordingly sent to the Tower, where they continued in confinement till the end of the session. This year a dreadful famine happened in the East Indies, which, according to some accounts, carried off about one-third of the inhabitants, that is about ten millions of people. This scourge of heaven is said to have been still further exasperated by the villany of man. Many of the company's servants were accused of having bought up the greatest part of the rice (the chief or almost the only food of the natives, as the Pythagorean system, which they follow, prohibits them the use of animal food) and to have sold it out at such an exorbitant price as to put it absolutely beyond the reach of the poorer sort of the people.

Elective kingdoms are subject to such violent shocks and convulsions upon every vacancy of the throne, that it has been thought proper, in most of the modern states of Europe, to establish hereditary monarchies ; and even in these last a disputed title is always attended with such civil wars and bloodshed, that it has been found expedient to keep the line of succession as clear and distinct as possible. This is the reason why so much attention is given in this country to the marriages of the royal family. The king's two brothers, the dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, having married privately, the former, the countess dowager of Waldegrave, the latter a widow lady of the name of Horton, daughter to lord Irnham, a bill was now passed, enacting, that all the descendants of his late majesty

A. D.  
1772.

(other than the issue of the princesses who have married, or may hereafter marry into foreign families) shall be incapable of contracting marriage without the previous consent of the king, or his successors on the throne, signified under the great seal, and declared in council; that every such marriage, without such consent, shall be null and void; that, nevertheless, such descendants, being above the age of twenty-five years, upon their giving the privy-council twelve months previous notice of their design, may, after the expiration of that term, enter into marriage without the royal consent, unless both houses of parliament shall within that time expressly declare their disapprobation of it; and that all persons who shall knowingly presume to solemnize, or assist at the celebration of such illicit marriage, shall be liable to all the pains and penalties of the statute of præmunire.

In the course of this session a material alteration was made in the criminal law of the kingdom. Formerly, when a felon refused to plead, he was stretched out upon his back at full length, and a heavy weight laid upon his breast, which was gradually, through slowly, increased till he expired; during which operation he was fed with nothing but a crust of bread and some dirty water. By a bill, which was now passed this barbarous practice was abolished, and all felons refusing to plead are adjudged to be guilty of the crimes laid to their charge.

An act of injustice was committed this year by three of the first crowned heads in Europe, which, though not immediately connected with the history of England, ought not to be passed over in silence. It was indeed of so flagrant and atrocious a nature, that, for a similar one in private life, the authors would have been brought to condign punishment. What I allude to, is the dismemberment of Poland. The emperor of Germany, the king of Prussia, and the empress of Russia, entered into a confederacy, or rather a conspiracy (for a most villanous conspiracy it was) to divide among themselves the better part of that fertile country, to which they pleaded some antiquated claims; and to form the rest into an independent kingdom, to be governed by the present sovereign, with an hereditary instead of an elective title: and as none of the other powers of Europe thought proper to interrupt them in the prosecution of their scheme, they were at last fully able to accomplish

their purpose. This year was likewise distinguished by a remarkable revolution in the government of Sweden, as well as that of Denmark. The king of Sweden, in violation of the most sacred engagements he had come under at his accession, raised himself from being the most limited, to be one of the most absolute monarchs in Europe. In Denmark, the king was deprived of the whole sovereign power, which was engrossed by his mother-in-law, the queen-dowager, and his half-brother, prince Frederick. His two principal favourites, the counts Struensee and Brandt, were brought to the block. Even the queen-consort, Matilda, sister to his Britannic majesty, very narrowly escaped with her life. She afterwards retired to Zell in Germany, where she lived for a few years, at the end of which she sickened and died.

To give some check to the rapacity of the East India company's servants abroad, a supreme court of judicature was now established at Bengal, consisting of a chief-justice, with a salary of 8000*l.* and three inferior judges with a salary of 6000*l.*

About this time the common people of Ireland, and in the north of Scotland, were so cruelly harassed A. D. 1773. by their unfeeling landlords, who raised the rent of their land upon them without considering whether they could pay it, that they emigrated in great numbers to America; and of these, it is said, was principally composed that army, which first began the war in that part of the world, conducted it with such spirit and perseverance, and did not conclude it till they had rendered themselves and their new-adopted country independent of their old masters. Oppressed subjects, when driven to extremity, become the most dangerous and inveterate foes: they are actuated by a spirit of revenge against their former tyrants, which cannot be supposed to influence the natives of a foreign country.

This year captain Phipps in the *Seahorse*, and captain Lutwich in the *Carcase*, were sent out by government, in order to examine whether there was a possibility of discovering either a north-east or a north-west passage to the East Indies; but after sailing to the latitude of 81 degrees, 30 minutes, they were prevented by the mountains, or rather the islands of ice they met with, from proceeding any farther. and they therefore returned home without being able to accomplish their purpose.

This reign, indeed, seems for some years past, to have been particularly distinguished by the spirit of adventure. Five different voyages have been performed round the world for the similar purposes of making discoveries in the South-sea; the first by commodore Byron; the second, by captain Wallis; the third, by captain Carteret; and the fourth and fifth, by captain Cook: and none of them have entirely failed in the object of their destination; each of the circum-navigators having either found out some new countries, or something new in the manners of those that were already known. Captain Cook engaged in a third voyage, when to the infinite regret of all lovers of real merit, he was cut off in a scuffle with the inhabitants of one of the new-discovered islands in the South-sea, called O-why-hee.

The great subject of dispute between the mother-country and her American colonies, was the right of taxation. The parliament of Great Britain insisted upon its rights of taxing them by its own proper authority. The colonies denied this right, and said that they could not be legally taxed without their own consent; and rather than submit to any taxes otherwise imposed, they seemed willing to encounter every danger, and to risk every extremity. In order, however to try their temper, and see whether they would put their threats in practice, some tea was sent out to America, loaded with a certain duty. This tea was not suffered to be landed, but was sent back to England with the utmost contempt and indignation. In the harbour of Boston it met with a still worse reception. It was taken out of the ships by the populace, and thrown into the sea. To

A. D. 1774. punish the New-Englanders for this act of violence, two bills were now passed; one for shutting up the port of Boston; and the other for taking the executive power out of the hands of the people, and vesting it in the crown. Though the minister had hitherto carried every thing in parliament with a high hand, yet as that assembly was now drawing towards an end, he began to be apprehensive that it would not be easy to procure another house of commons equally obsequious, if the people were allowed to be prepared for the elections in the usual manner. He therefore resolved to steal a march upon his antagonists, and to take the people by surprise. The parliament accordingly was suddenly dissolved at the end of the

sixth session, and a new one was chosen equally courtly and complaisant with the former.

The acts of severity, we have mentioned above, were levelled in appearance only at the town of Boston; yet most of the other colonies soon took the alarm. They thought they saw, in the fate of that devoted town, the punishment that might soon be inflicted on themselves, as they had all been guilty of nearly the same crime, if not in destroying, at least in refusing, the tea. They therefore resolved to make one common cause with the people of New England; and accordingly all the old British colonies (Nova Scotia and Georgia excepted), sent delegates or commissioners to a general assembly, which met at Philadelphia, and assuming the name of the Congress, presented a bold and spirited remonstrance to his majesty, soliciting a redress of grievances. Georgia, the year following, acceded to the union, and thus completed the number of the thirteen united provinces, which soon after revolted from the mother-country, and at last rendered themselves sovereign and independent states. The congress, not satisfied with their remonstrances to the king, exhorted the New-Englanders to oppose the execution of the Boston Port Bill, and of the other severe acts that had been lately passed against them, and they even promised to assist them in case of necessity. To this, indeed, that people were sufficiently disposed by their own natural temper, as of all the American colonies, New England was, perhaps, the province, which from its independent spirit in religion, had longest cherished the wish, and even entertained the hopes of becoming independent in government.

The fire, therefore, which had been so long smouldering between Great Britain and her colonies, now broke out into an open flame. General Gage, governor of Massachusetts-bay, hearing that the provincials had collected a quantity of military stores at a place called Concord, sent out a detachment in order to destroy them. This detachment met a company of militia at Lexington, about six miles from Concord, between whom and the king's forces a few shot were exchanged, by which eight provincials were killed and several wounded. The detachment then went on, without any farther interruption, to Concord, where they destroyed the stores; but in their return from thence, they were suddenly attacked by a large body of provincials, who harassed them



most terribly until they reached Boston. In this action the king's troops lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, two hundred and seventy-three men, of which sixty-five were killed. The loss of the provincials amounted to about forty killed, and twenty wounded.

The news of this engagement was no sooner carried into the different parts of the country, than the whole province was at once in arms, and Boston was in a few days, invested by a body of militia, amounting, it is said, to twenty thousand men. The congress, too, upon hearing of the affair of Lexington and the blockade of Boston, heartily approved of all the steps which the New-Englanders had taken; and they passed a resolution, declaring, that the compact between the crown and the people of Massachusetts-bay was dissolved. They strictly prohibited the people from supplying the army, the navy, or the transport-ships, with any kind of provisions. The more effectually to mark their contempt for the British government, they erected a post-office, at the head of which they placed Dr. Franklin, who had been disgracefully moved from the post in England; and upon general Gage's publishing a proclamation, offering a pardon to all such as should lay down their arms and return to their duty, but excepting from it Messrs. Hancock and Adams, they immediately chose Mr. Hancock president of the congress.

A. D. 1775. As matters had now been carried too far to admit of any immediate reconciliation, it was generally imagined, that each party would watch an opportunity of striking some blow that might give it a decisive advantage over the other. Nor was it long before it appeared that this apprehension was but too well founded. There is an eminence, called Bunker's-hill upon a narrow neck of land or isthmus, in the neighbourhood of Boston. Upon this hill the provincials threw up, in one of the short nights of June, a strong redoubt, considerable intrenchments, and a breastwork, almost cannon-proof. In order to dislodge them from this post, which might have given great annoyance, as well to the town as to the shipping in the harbour, a detachment of somewhat more than two thousand men was sent out under the command of the generals Howe and Pigot. The attack was begun by a heavy cannonade, not only from the assailants, but from the ships and

floating batteries, and from the top of Cop's-hill, in Boston. This severe and incessant fire the provincials are said to have borne with a firmness and resolution that would have done honour even to the most veteran troops. They did not return a shot, until the king's forces had advanced almost to the works, when they began, and kept up for some time such a dreadful and continued fire upon them, as threw our troops into confusion, and killed many of our bravest men and officers. The troops, however, were instantly rallied, and returning to the charge with fixed bayonets, and irresistible fury, they forced the works in every quarter, and compelled the provincials to abandon the post, and withdraw to the continent. This advantage, however, was not gained but at a very great expense. Almost one half of the detachment was either killed or wounded, the numbers of which together amounted to one thousand and fifty-four.

The number of officers that fell in this action, compared to that of the private men, was greatly beyond the usual proportion; and this is said to have been owing to the following circumstance:—The Americans had trained, and employed on this occasion, a certain set of soldiers, called marksmen or riflemen, who excelled all others in taking a sure and steady aim. They had likewise furnished them with a new kind of muskets, called rifle-barrelled guns, which not only carried the ball to a greater distance, but sent it in a more straight and direct line than the common firelocks. Thus our officers were marked out, and despatched by these riflemen with almost as fatal a certainty, as a bird is shot by a fowler when perched upon a tree.

To understand their motive for this conduct it may be proper to observe, that during the whole course of the war the Americans expressed a particular animosity to the officers of the British army beyond what they showed to the common men, and probably from an opinion, that the war was disapproved of by the great body of the English nation, and was chiefly approved and supported by the nobility and gentry, of which two classes of people the officers of the army are in general composed. They, probably, too had another end in view; and that was to entice the common men to desert from the army, and if not immediately to join the American forces, at least to become settlers in the

country, and thereby add to its strength and population ; nor could any thing withstand the strong temptations that were thrown in their way for this purpose, but their fidelity to their king, and their attachment to their native soil.

The spirit displayed by the New-Englanders on this occasion, no doubt, encouraged the congress to proceed with greater alacrity in their military preparations. They had, some time before, given orders for raising and paying an army, and they now published a declaration of the motives that compelled them to take up arms, and their determined resolution not to lay them down, till all their grievances were redressed, that is, till the obnoxious acts of parliament were repealed. They likewise appointed Mr. Washington, one of the delegates for Virginia, to be commander in chief of all the American forces.

But to show, at the same time, that they had no intention of separating themselves from the mother-country, they presented an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, another to the people of Ireland, and a petition to the king, in which they disclaim all thoughts of independence, and declare, that they wish for nothing more ardently than a reconciliation with the parent-state, upon what they call just and reasonable terms. And, in the opinion of many people, such terms might have been granted them at this time, as would at once have gratified their ambition, and would neither have hurt the honour nor the interest of England. For this purpose several plans were proposed by the minority ; but they were all rejected.

Our ministers, indeed, seem now to have been possessed with the romantic notion of conquering America by force of arms, which, perhaps, was at no time practicable ; or had it been, the keeping it in subjection would have cost us more than all the advantage we could ever have derived from it. Perhaps, indeed, no country is worth retaining that cannot be preserved otherwise than by a military force. So strong, however, was the delusion under which the ministry then laboured, that they were incapable of having their eyes opened even by the very interesting intelligence they received from Mr. Penn, one of the most wealthy and best-informed gentlemen in America. He was a descendant of the great Penn who had founded the colony of Pennsylvania. He was himself one of the chief proprietors of

that province ; and he had brought over the last petition to the king from the American congress. He was now examined in the house of lords, and the sum of his evidence tended to prove, that the colonies had not yet formed any design of erecting themselves into independent states ; that, on the contrary, they were extremely desirous of compromising all differences with the mother-country upon equitable terms ; but that, if their present application for this purpose (meaning the petition), was rejected, there was great reason to fear that they would enter into alliances with foreign powers : and if once such alliances were made, it would be no easy matter to dissolve them. No regard, however, was paid to his information ; and as to the petition itself, he was told by the ministry, that no answer would be returned to it.

It is easy to imagine what an impression such a haughty and contemptuous treatment must make upon the minds of the Americans, elated, as they were, with the honour they had acquired by their gallant behaviour in the battle of Bunker's-hill, and now, perhaps, for the first time, beginning to feel their strength as a people. The fact is, that during the whole of this unhappy quarrel, our ministers seem to have entertained too mean an opinion of the spirit, as well as of the resources of the Americans. This, it is thought, was the critical moment for putting an end to all differences with the colonies, without proceeding to further hostilities ; but this moment being once lost could never be recovered.

The Americans were not satisfied with acting merely on the defensive, or within the limits of the associated provinces. A party of New England and New York militia made an incursion into Canada, under the generals Montgomery and Arnold. They reduced the forts of Chambles and St. John, and even the town of Montreal. They actually attempted to take the city of Quebec by storm ; but Montgomery being killed, and Arnold wounded in the assault, they were obliged to desist from the enterprise ; and a large body of troops arriving soon after from England, they were finally compelled to evacuate the province.

The army, however, in Boston, was now reduced to a most miserable condition. General Howe, who had succeeded general Gage in the command of it, though an officer of spirit, and of great military skill, and even fruitful in

resources and expedients, found himself totally unequal to the difficulties of his situation. He was effectually cut off from all communication with the continent of America, from which he could not expect the least supply of provisions; the store-ships from England not only arriving slowly, but several of them were even intercepted by the enemy. In a word, the army, as well as the inhabitants of Boston, were in the most imminent danger of perishing by hunger. To add to their distress, the Americans had erected some strong batteries upon the adjacent hills, from whence in the spring they began to play upon the town

with incredible fury; and now assailed at once by  
 A. D. the horrors of war and of famine, neither of which  
 1776.

it was in their power to repel, they found it indispensably necessary to evacuate the place. The army accordingly, and such of the inhabitants as chose to follow its fortunes, being put on board some transports, they set sail from Boston, and, after a quick passage, arrived safely at Halifax, in Nova Scotia. General Howe had no sooner quitted the town than general Washington took possession of it, and being assisted by some foreign engineers, he soon fortified it in such a manner as to render it almost impregnable.

About the same time an expedition was undertaken against Charles-Town, the capital of South Carolina, which showed us to be as little acquainted with creeks and harbours on the coast of America, as we soon after appeared to be with the interior geography of the country. The fleet was commanded by Sir Peter Parker; the land-forces by general Clinton. The troops were disembarked upon a place called Long Island, separated from another named Sullivan's Island only by a strait, which was said to be no more than eighteen inches deep at low water. Upon this vague report our commanders planned the expedition; and the success was such as might have been expected. The enemy had erected some strong batteries upon Sullivan's Island, in order to obstruct the passage of the ships up to the town. This post the admiral attacked with great gallantry; but when the troops attempted to pass from the one island to the other, in order to second his efforts, they found the strait instead of eighteen inches, to be no less than seven feet deep. The consequence was, that the admiral, after continuing the

action for the space ten hours, and after having lost some of his bravest men and officers, and even a ship of war, which he was obliged to burn to prevent her falling into the hands of the enemy, was at last forced to give up the enterprise as altogether impracticable.

The news of this miscarriage, and of the mistake that gave rise to it, were received in England with the most perfect indifference. The fact is, that our ministers, and indeed a great part of the people, seem at this time to have fallen into a state of the most unaccountable listlessness and inattention to the national honour and the national interest. The people at large appeared to have been of opinion, that as no great honour could be derived from success in this war, so no great disgrace could be incurred by a failure in it; and losses and disappointments, which, had we been engaged in hostilities with a foreign enemy, would have fired the nation with resentment, and called down the utmost weight of public vengeance upon the authors of them, were now passed over as common and trivial occurrences.

The Americans now began to think that matters had been carried to too great an extremity between them and the mother-country, ever to admit of any sincere or lasting reconciliation. They likewise reflected, that while they continued to acknowledge themselves subjects of the British empire, they were naturally regarded by the rest of the world as rebels fighting against their lawful sovereign; and that this might prevent foreign states from entering into any public treaty or alliance with them. Moved, therefore, by these considerations, they published, about this time, their famous declaration of independence, by which they disclaimed all allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, and erected themselves into free and sovereign states.

General Howe did not remain long inactive at Halifax, Setting sail from that place, he arrived off New York; and being there joined by his brother, lord Howe, with a large fleet and considerable reinforcements, he drove the enemy first from Long Island, then from the city of New York; and he compelled them to abandon Kingsbridge, at the extremity of New York Island, where they had thrown up some very strong works. He even pursued them to a place called White Plains, where he had a slight skirmish with

them, but not being able to bring them to a general engagement, he returned to New York, where he fixed his head-quarters.

The affairs of the congress were reported at this time to be in a very desperate situation. As their troops had been enlisted only for a certain term, which was now expired, their army is said to have dwindled down from twenty-five thousand to three thousand. Two strokes, however, which general Washington soon after struck, and which contributed equally to raise the spirits of his own men, and to damp those of the British troops, seem to correspond very ill with this opinion. \*On the night of Christmas-day he silently crossed the Delaware, and attacking a body of Hessians that were quartered at Trenton, he made nine hundred and eighteen of them prisoners, whom he fairly carried off. In a few days after, he crossed the river a second time, and falling upon a body of British troops under the command of colonel Mawhood, he either killed or captured the greatest part of them. These successes, indeed, might be as much owing to his intimate acquaintance with the nature of the country, as to any superiority of force he possessed. But the advantage which this knowledge of the country gave him, seems to be a circumstance that never entered into the head of our ministers or commanders, and to counteract which it does not appear that they ever took the least care, or ever made the slightest provision.

France and Spain had hitherto professed to observe the most exact neutrality with regard to Great Britain, and her American colonies. A step, however, which they now took, was sufficient to render their sincerity suspected. They opened their ports to the American privateers, and suffered them publicly to dispose of the rich prizes they had taken from the British merchants. They likewise supplied the Americans privately with artillery, and other military stores; and such numbers of French officers and engineers went over to the western world, and joined the American army, as added greatly to the skill, and consequently to the strength of the enemy. At the same time both these powers continued to increase their marine with such unwearied diligence, that it was plainly foreseen, and even foretold by every person of common sense, that they would soon throw

off the mask they had hitherto worn, and openly declare in favour of the Americans. But these predictions were disregarded by the ministry, or rather were treated with the most supreme contempt; they affected to laugh at them as the visionary conceits of wrong-headed politicians.

We have already observed, that on his majesty's accession, 800,000*l.* a year had been settled upon him for his civil list. But this sum had hitherto been found unequal to the expenses of the civil government. Above half a million of money, therefore, was now granted for defraying the arrears of the civil list, and an addition of 100,000*l.* a year was made to this branch of the revenue; so that his majesty then had 900,000*l.* a year for supporting the charge of his civil government. What opinion even some of the ministers themselves had of this measure, may be easily learned from the speech which sir Fletcher Norton, speaker of the house of commons, made to the king, when he presented to him the bill for this purpose. He told him, that his faithful commons had given him this mark of their affection, at a time when their constituents were labouring under burdens, almost too heavy to be borne.—“They have,” continued he, “not only granted to your majesty a large present supply, but also a very great additional revenue; great beyond example; great beyond your majesty's highest expense. But all this, sire, they have done in a well-grounded confidence, that you will apply wisely, what they have granted liberally.”

In the month of June, general Howe opened the campaign in the province of New York, and again exerted his utmost endeavours to bring the enemy to a decisive action; but this, as formerly, was avoided by general Washington with so much ability and success, as soon procured that gentleman the appellation, which he seems, indeed, to have very justly deserved, of the American Fabius. General Howe, finding it either impossible either to provoke or entice the enemy to a pitched battle, in the northern colonies, resolved to try his fortune in the more southern provinces. Accordingly, embarking his army on board of about two hundred transports, he set sail for Philadelphia; but when he arrived at the mouth of the Delaware, which leads directly to that city, he found the channel of the river filled with such a quantity of chevaux-de-frise,

A. D.  
1777.



as rendered it absolutely impassable. He therefore landed his troops at Elk Ferry, in Maryland; and on his march from this last place, he met general Washington on the banks of the Brandywine river. Washington, being extremely desirous of protecting Philadelphia, resolved, contrary to his usual maxim, to hazard a battle. The two armies, in consequence, immediately came to an engagement, and after a severe and bloody conflict, which continued through the whole day, the enemy were at last obliged to yield to the superior discipline of the English troops. By this means the king's forces were enabled to continue their march to Philadelphia, of which they took possession, though the greatest part of them were encamped at a village called German Town, about six miles from the city.

General Washington, though worsted in the battle of the Brandywine, was neither so much weakened nor dispirited by that event, as to prevent his undertaking, in a short time after, a very bold enterprise, which was as little expected by his friends as his enemies. He had taken post at a place called Skippach Creek, about sixteen miles from German Town, where he received a considerable reinforcement. From this place, on the third of October, he set out silently, by night and arriving at German Town, about three in the morning, he fell upon the king's forces with such impetuosity, as to throw them into confusion; but these being rallied, and brought to the charge, the enemy, in their turn, were obliged to retreat, though this they did with such good order as to carry off their cannon with them. The loss of the royal army in this action amounted to above five hundred men; that of the enemy was probably more considerable.

General Howe sustained still greater loss in clearing the banks of the river of those forts which the enemy had erected upon them, and which prevented the approach of the ships to the town with the necessary stores and provisions. A strong body of Hessians, which he sent out upon this service, were almost all of them, either killed or wounded, and were obliged to relinquish the enterprise. But as there was an indispensable necessity for destroying these forts, without which it would be impossible to subsist the army in Philadelphia during the winter, some ships of war were warped up the river, which soon silenced the

batteries ; and preparations being made for storming the forts on the land-side, the enemy at last thought proper to abandon them. The chevaux-de-frise, however, still continued in the bed of the river, and prevented the passage of any ships of war, or, indeed, of any ships of heavy burden.

The king's forces were not so successful in the northern as they had been in the more southern provinces. General Burgoyne, who commanded an army in Canada of about ten thousand men, including some Indians, resolved with this body to make an impression upon the province of New England. He crossed the lakes George and Champlain without opposition. He even reduced the fort of Ticonderago. But, upon his arrival at Saratoga, he was suddenly surrounded and attacked by a superior body of New-Englanders, under the generals Gates and Arnold, and after fighting them two different times with great bravery, though with great loss, his camp was at last stormed, and he and his men were obliged to submit to a capitulation, importing, that they should lay down their arms, and be conducted to Boston, from whence they should be allowed to embark for Great Britain, upon condition of their not serving again in America during the present war.

A little before this, an extraordinary revolution happened in the East Indies. Lord Pigot, governor of Madras, was, merely for executing the orders of the directors, seized and imprisoned by the leading members of the council ; and even his life was at first thought to be in danger from the violence of his enemies. His own feelings, however, in a little time completed what his adversaries had either the prudence or the humanity to forbear. His high spirit could not brook the indignity that had been offered him ; he soon after sickened and died ; and his death was the more sincerely lamented, as, without making invidious comparisons, it may be safely affirmed that his lordship was a man of the most amiable character of any that ever made a fortune in the East.

Civil wars are always attended with a spirit of enthusiasm, which frequently carries men to the commission of crimes, the bare thought of which, in their cooler moments, would fill them with horror. It was, no doubt, under the influence of this spirit that one James Aitken, commonly known by

the name of John the Painter, set fire to the rope-house at Portsmouth, and to a street called Quay-lane, in Bristol. He is even said to have formed a plan for burning all the principal trading towns in the island, together with their docks and shipping. But before he could carry his hellish designs into execution, he was seized, tried, condemned, executed and hung in chains.

**A. D.** **1778.** What had long been foreseen by almost every sensible and unprejudiced man in the kingdom, and repeatedly foretold by the opposition in parliament, now came to pass. The French threw off the mask they had hitherto worn, and openly declared in favour of the Americans, whom they acknowledged as sovereign and independent states.

General Clinton, who had succeeded General How in the command of the army, now evacuated Philadelphia, and retreated to New York, in his march to which he was attacked by General Washington; but no great loss was sustained on either side. In this action, indeed, general Lee was accused of not having acted with his usual alacrity in attacking the British troops, and being found guilty, was suspended for a year. It may be worthy of notice that this gentleman had formerly served in the British army, which he had quitted in disgust, and had ever since espoused the cause of the Americans, whose interest he had promoted with equal zeal and activity. He had particularly distinguished himself in the defence of Sullivan's Island. Some little time before this he had been taken prisoner, by a flying party of the English army, and was threatened with being tried and punished as a deserter. But the congress declared, that if any violence was offered to his person they would immediately retaliate upon such British officers as were in their power. And to compensate for his capture, general Prescott, a British officer, was soon after taken prisoner by a small party of the Americans; so that these two gentlemen were very soon exchanged.

Though war had not been formally declared between Great Britain and France, yet there could be no doubt but that these rival nations were in a state of actual hostility. Fleets were accordingly fitted out on both sides. D'Orvilliers commanded the French squadron; admiral Keppel conducted the English. The fleets met on the 27th

of July, when a running-fight took place, but no decisive action. Admiral Keppel was afterwards accused of not having done his duty by admiral Palliser, the second in command. He was therefore tried, but was honourably acquitted. Palliser, himself, was likewise tried for disobedience of orders, and was partly acquitted, and partly condemned.

In the course of this year died the celebrated earl of Chatham, one of the greatest orators, as well as one of the ablest and most successful ministers that this country ever produced. As some mark of national gratitude for the many eminent services he had performed to his country, the sum of twenty thousand pounds was now granted by parliament for discharging his debts; an annuity of four thousand was settled upon his son and successor, and upon all the heirs of his body that shall inherit the earldom of Chatham; his remains were interred with great funeral-pomp at Westminster Abbey; and a monument was ordered to be erected to his memory at the public expense. *Burns.*

This year a bold adventurer of the name of Paul Jones kept all the western coast of the island in alarm. He landed at Whitehaven, where he burned a ship in the harbour, and even attempted to burn the town. He afterwards landed in Scotland, and plundered the house of the earl of Selkirk. He some time after fought a bloody battle with captain Pearson of the *Serapis*, whom he compelled to submit; and so shattered was his own ship in the engagement, that he had no sooner quitted her, in order to take possession of his prize, then she went to the bottom. Captain Farmer, too, of the *Quebec*, fought a no less desperate battle with a French ship of greatly superior force. He continued the engagement with unrelenting fury, till his own ship accidentally taking fire, was blown into the air, together with himself and most of his crew. A. D. 1779.

The chief scene of action between the English and French fleets was the West Indies, where we reduced St. Lucia. But this advantage was more than counterbalanced by the loss of Dominica, St. Vincent's, and Granada, which the enemy took from us. Nothing of importance happened this year in America, except the reduction of Georgia, by commodore Parker, and colonel Campbell; and an attempt which

the French admiral D'Estaing, and the American general Lincoln, made to recover it; but in which they were bravely repulsed by major-general Prevost. As to general Washington, he still kept upon the defensive; nor could sir Henry Clinton, with all his military skill and address, bring him to a pitched battle.

A fresh attempt was made this year to compromise differences with the American colonies; and for this purpose three commissioners were sent out to that part of the world, viz. the earl of Carlisle, Mr. Eden, and governor Johnstone; but it was plain to every man of common sense, that after the sword had been used so long, it was in vain to think of settling the dispute with a few strokes of the pen. This negotiation, however, we chiefly mention for the sake of a noble and high-spirited answer that was given by Mr. Reed, an American general, to one of the commissioners, who had offered him the sum of ten thousand pounds, and any office in his majesty's gift in the colonies, provided he would use his influence in bringing about an accommodation. This offer Mr. Reed considered as an attempt to bribe him; and he therefore replied—"I am not worth purchasing, but such as I am, the king of Great Britain is not rich enough to do it."

The king of Spain now followed the example of the French monarch in acknowledging the independence of the American colonies; and the fleets of these two great powers being joined together, rendered them more than a match for that of Great Britain. This summer the militia was drawn out, and encamped in different parts of the kingdom.

The civil transactions of next year consisted chiefly  
 A. D. 1780. in some attempts that were made in parliament for reducing the public expenses. By a plan of Mr. Burke's, the board of trade, and some other useless and superfluous offices, were abolished. And by a bill introduced by the minister himself, commissioners were appointed to inquire into the public accounts; and the discoveries they made in the course of their examination threw great light upon the collection, as well as the expenditure of several branches of revenue.

This year a man stirred up from the depth of obscurity, in which he had for some time been buried by debts and diffi-

culties, we do not say to retrieve the honour of the British flag, for that had never been tarnished, but certainly to carry it to a higher pitch than it had lately attained. This was admiral Rodney, who being intrusted with the command of a squadron, set sail for Gibraltar, and in his way thither, first took a rich convoy of Spanish merchantmen; afterwards defeated a fleet of Spanish men-of-war, taking the admiral Don Langara's ship, and three other ships of the line; a few months after he fought a most obstinate battle with a superior French fleet, under the count de Guichen, in the West Indies; and, to mention all his gallant actions at once, in 1782 he obtained a most glorious victory, in the neighbourhood of Jamaica, over another French fleet, commanded by the count de Grasse, taking the admiral's own ship the *Ville de Paris*, of 110 guns, and several others. For these heroic achievements he was raised to the peerage, which he justly deserved.

The principal events that happened in America this year were the reduction of Charles-Town, South Carolina, by sir Henry Clinton and admiral Arbuthnot; the defeat of general Gates by lord Cornwallis; the execution of major André, adjutant-general to the British forces, who was taken in disguise within the American lines, and condemned as a spy; and the desertion of general Arnold from the American cause, and his joining the British army.

Our more immediate domestic occurrences were of a most shocking and disgraceful nature. In consequence of some indulgences now granted by the parliament to Roman Catholics, a riotous and licentious mob assembled in St. George's-fields, in order to petition the two houses against these marks of lenity; soon after which they proceeded to commit the most terrible devastations. They destroyed all the Romish chapels in and about the town; they burned the prisons of Newgate, the Fleet, and King's Bench, together with the houses of many private persons: and they were even going to make an attack upon the Bank, when they were happily opposed by a body of citizens who had learned the military discipline, and called themselves the London Association, as well as by the regular troops who were now called in; and these two together soon suppressed the riot, though not till they had killed, or mortally wounded, about two hundred and twenty of the ringleaders. Lord George Gordon was

afterwards tried for having collected this assembly ; but as it appeared that he was actuated merely by religious principles, and had never encouraged the mob to commit, nor even expected they would commit, any outrage, he was acquitted.

A. D. The events of 1781 were neither numerous nor 1781. important; yet some things happened in most quarters, of the globe that are worthy of notice. As if we had not had a sufficient number of enemies upon our hands already, we now thought proper to increase the list by engaging in a war, perhaps rather rashly, and even unnecessarily, with the Dutch. In the West Indies we took from them the island of St. Eustatius ; but it was soon after retaken by the French. A desperate engagement happened off the Dogger-bank between a small squadron of English ships under admiral Hyde Parker, and a like squadron of Dutch ships under admiral Zoutman. The action was maintained for more than three hours with equal gallantry on both sides, and at last ended in a drawn battle.

In America some petty skirmishes happened by land, and some trifling encounters by sea, in some of which we failed, and in others succeeded. But at last earl Cornwallis, our second in command, got himself into a situation in Virginia, from which no military skill or generalship could possibly deliver him ; and he was therefore obliged to surrender himself and his whole army prisoners of war to the united armies of America and France, under the command of general Washington. This was the second British army that had been captured in America, and might have served to convince our ministers if any thing could have convinced them of the extreme difficulty, if not the utter impossibility of carrying on a successful war in so remote and extensive a continent. In the East Indies we had somewhat better fortune. Hyder Ally, indeed, and the Mahrattas, had joined their armies against us, defeated colonel Baillie, and obliged sir Hector Munro to retreat ; but sir Eyre Coote arriving, and taking upon him the command of the army, soon obtained a complete victory over the enemy.

A. D. Though the capture of Lord Cornwallis did not 1782. put an actual, yet it may be said to have put a virtual end to the war in America. All hopes of

conquering it were from that moment abandoned as vain and chimerical; and every military operation that was afterwards carried on, was not so much with a view of subjugating the colonies, as to maintain the honour of the British arms. The object of the war, therefore, being now fairly given up as altogether unattainable, the minds of men in general were set upon a peace; but as peace could not be decently concluded by that ministry which had so long and so obstinately carried on the war, there was an absolute necessity for a new ministry. The old ministry, therefore, was dismissed, and a new one appointed in its room. The marquis of Rockingham was made first lord of the treasury; lord John Cavendish, chancellor of the exchequer; Mr. Fox and lord Shelburne, secretaries of state; the duke of Richmond, master-general of the ordnance; and general Conway, commander in chief of the army. In a word there was hardly a single member of the late ministry who retained his place in the present, except the chancellor, lord Thurlow.

We had almost forgot to mention, that ever since the commencement of hostilities with Spain, the fortress of Gibraltar had been closely invested by the troops of that nation; but all their attempts were rendered ineffectual by the admirable skill and gallantry of the governor, general Elliot. He commonly suffered the enemy to finish their works before he attacked them; and then, in the space of a few hours, he either set them on fire or levelled them with the ground. In their last attempt upon the place, they attacked it with a number of gun-boats, that are said to have been bomb-proof; but these he likewise contrived to set on fire by firing red-hot balls into them. The Spaniards, however, though they failed in this attempt, succeeded in two others. They took from us the island of Minorca, and the province of West Florida.

The ministry were proceeding diligently with the work of peace, negotiations for which were opened at Paris, when they suddenly, and unhappily for the nation, fell in pieces by the death of their leader, the marquis of Rockingham. He was succeeded by the earl of Shelburne, and this gave so much disgust to some of the principal members of administration, that Mr. Fox, lord John Cavendish, Mr. Burke, pay-



master of the forces, and several other gentlemen resigned their places. The new ministry, however, (for such it may be called) were as zealous for a peace as the old one, and they accordingly proceeded to settle the terms of it in the best manner they could: but before they could complete the work of a general pacification, they were obliged to give

A. D. way to the superior parliamentary interest of Mr. 1783. Fox and lord North, who formed a coalition, and though formerly so different in their political sentiments, now came into power as friends and coadjutors. Thus Mr. Fox had the satisfaction of finishing the peace which he had begun under the marquis of Rockingham; and lord North had the mortification of being compelled to acknowledge the independence of those colonies which he had long hoped to conquer.

When the peace was concluded, and the ferment which the late changes in administration, and especially the coalition, had occasioned, was beginning to subside, the ministry turned their thoughts to a purpose of great magnitude, and which seemed to demand all the vigour of penetrating genius, and all the support of a nation, not less famed for its humanity, than interested in the preservation of its commerce. This was the regulation of the affairs of the East India Company both at home and abroad. The abuses in the management of East India trade and territory were now too flagrant to admit either of concealment or excuse; and with a view to take away the means of corruption, and rectify all the errors of the oriental system, Mr. Fox adventured on a plan more bold than that system contained, and nearly more unpopular than its worst abuses. This plan went to take from the directors and proprietors of the East India company and stock, the entire administration of their territorial and commercial affairs, their house in Leadenhall-street, their books, papers, and documents; and it vested the whole power, management, and patronage, the rights of peace and war, and their entire revenue, in the hands of seven commissioners, who, though for the present appointed by the legislature, were hereafter to be appointed by the crown, and were to hold their offices by the same tenure as the judges of England, that is, during their good behaviour, and were consequently not removeable unless by an address from either house of parliament.

This plan was combated with unusual success by the adherents of the late administration, and by all persons directly or indirectly interested in the affairs of the East India company : nor was the voice of the nation less loud in resisting what appeared to be an immense plan of personal aggrandisement, at the expense equally of the crown and of the people. In the house of commons the opposition was headed by Mr. William Pitt. The infraction of the company's charter, the immense and uncontrollable patronage granted to the commissioners, the injury done to the power of the crown, and to the liberties of the people, were the principal arguments enforced both within and without doors : Mr. Fox's bill, however, was successful in the house of commons. Nov. 1783.

In the house of lords, it was opposed on the strongest grounds, as an atrocious violation of private property, and as creating a power paramount to each of the three estates of the kingdom : and after debates equally warm with those in the other house, the plan was rejected. A singular circumstance preceded this defeat : lord Temple demanding a private audience of his majesty is said to have convinced him of the danger that would ensue to the dignity of his crown, and the liberty of the people from this bill. What effect his majesty's conviction of this truth, when made public, may have produced on the sentiments of some noble lords, we pretend not to investigate. There was, however, nothing improper or illegal in a peer of the realm giving advice to his sovereign in a matter which involved, or to him seemed to involve, the dearest interests of the nation ; and the event proved, that his advice was consonant to the feelings of the majority of the nation.

The ministry being now defeated in their most favourite scheme, a struggle took place between them and the opposition, which continued with unequal success for some time. A new administration was appointed, at the head of which Mr. Pitt was placed as first lord of the Treasury and chancellor of the Exchequer. He could not, however, succeed in his measures in the house of commons : the majority were still the adherents of the coalition ministry, and the business of the nation stood still. A party of moderate men endeavored to unite the jarring interests of the more violent, by some kind of compromise, and meetings for this

purpose were held at the St. Alban's Tavern. These not proving successful, for neither party would give way, and it becoming absolutely necessary that an effectual administration should be formed, his majesty was induced Mar. 25, 1784, to dissolve the present parliament, conceiving it to be a duty he owed to the constitution, and to the country, to recur as speedily as possible to the sense of the people by the mode of a general election.

Whether the manner in which the present administration came into power was regular or not; whether the sentiments of the people were right, and the disgrace thrown on the coalition party merited, are questions to be discussed in histories of greater magnitude. Suffice it to say here, that the appeal to the people, by placing in their hands the power of election, was answered by a total defeat of the friends of the coalition. Above thirty of its principal supporters, although men of great fortunes and personal weight, and many of excellent characters, were rejected by their late constituents. When the parliament met, the ministry were supported by a resistless majority, and the nation, if we may judge from the multitude of addresses, were disposed to place the utmost confidence in their measures.

As the affairs of India were still urgent, Mr. Pitt introduced three bills for regulating them, the tendency of which was supposed to be more favourable to the crown and people, and equally successful in correcting the abuses of the company's servants. These bills excited all the opposition which the friends of the late administration could gather, and did not pass into a law, without being canvassed in every stage with uncommon care. By them a board of control was appointed for the management of the company's affairs, which has continued ever since. The rights of the court of directors and of the proprietors remained. Soon after the passing of these acts, Mr. Burke announced an intention of prosecuting an inquiry into the conduct of Mr. Hastings, the governor-general of Bengal.

The remainder of the session was taken up in the regulation of the finances. A bill was passed for the prevention of smuggling, by which the revenue was annually defrauded of two millions. The good effects of this bill, although diminished that time, have been since experienced. As part of the same system for the prevention of smuggling, the

commutation-act was passed: the high duties on tea were reduced, and a tax laid on by way of commutation on window-lights. No proceeding, however, of this administration, has been more opposed in parliament, and without doors, it could not be popular. The third branch of Mr. Pitt's plan to prevent smuggling, was a law for regulating the duties upon British spirits, and discontinuing, for a limited time, certain imposts upon spirits imported from the West Indies.

Mr. Pitt next found it necessary to borrow the sum of 600,000*l.* by way of loan. Of navy bills and ordnance debentures, he funded only the sum of 6,600,000*l.* Taxes were proposed on sundry articles, hats, ribbons, horses not employed in necessary labour, &c. The taxes were resisted with considerable force of argument, but the terms of the loan and the funding-system were applauded even by some of the leaders of the opposition. The only other event worthy of notice marks the liberality and lenity of modern times. A bill was brought in by Mr. Dundas, and carried successfully through both houses, to restore the estates confiscated to the crown in Scotland upon the termination of the rebellion in 1746.

The following year affords us a few occurrences of great celebrity; years of profound peace are barren to the historian. Mr. Pitt introduced a plan of parliamentary reformation, according to which one hundred members were to be added to the popular interest, and the right of election was to be extended to one hundred thousand persons who were previously disqualified. But the majority of the house were against this plan, and the bill was not permitted to be formally brought in. An extensive plan of fortifications, projected by the duke of Richmond, master of the ordnance, excited considerable attention, which was followed by very little conviction of its necessity. As it appeared, however, to deserve a serious inquiry from the nature of the expenses already incurred in the incipient state of it, the final discussion was adjourned for the present. But time did nothing to convince the public of its expediency; and on its being introduced in the following session, the whole plan was rejected. A circumstance almost without a precedent, attended its rejection. The numbers, when the division was called for, were equal.

and the speaker's casting vote being now necessary, he gave it against the noble duke's system.

The American loyalists, or those natives of inhabitants of America, who had suffered in their estates by their adherence to Great Britain during the late war, had strong claims on the justice and generosity of government. Their case had been often discussed since the peace, and commissioners were appointed to inquire into it. In June, Mr. Pitt informed the house, that the whole of the claims allowed by the commissioners amounted to the sum of 471,000*l.* he proposed that the sum of 150,000*l.* should be granted to the claimants for present relief, and a future and permanent provision be made by a lottery. But the principal business of this year respected what were called the Irish propositions, which tended to establish a new and more intimate system of commercial intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland. Petitions from several manufacturing towns were presented against this system, which indeed seemed equally unpopular in both kingdoms. Long and tedious debates were carried on in both parliaments. In the English, the propositions had been under consideration for nearly three months when they were taken up to the house of lords, and supported and attacked on the same ground as in the house of commons. When returned to the latter, Mr. Pitt moved an address to his majesty, acquainting him with what they had done, and the business was then left to the Irish parliament, where, after a full discussion, the whole system was finally rejected.

A. D. In the ensuing spring, Mr. Pitt laid before the public a plan of financial regulation, which had long employed his thoughts, and which has since engaged the attention of statesmen and politicians in no common degree. The outline of the plan was to establish a sinking-fund for the gradual liquidation of the national debt. One million was the sum annually to be placed in the hands of commissioners, in quarterly payments of 250,000*l.* each. The million, by compound interest, would amount to a very great sum in a short period; in twenty-eight years, for instance, it would produce an increase, of four millions *per annum*. This fund was not to be alienated to any other purpose. The debates on the subject were long, and conducted with great ability by both parties; but at length it was adopted.

A remarkable affair happened this year, which had like to have been attended with very serious consequences. As his majesty was alighting from his carriage at the gate of St. James's palace a woman of the name of Nicholson, who was waiting there, under pretence of presenting a petition, struck at his majesty with a knife, but providentially he received no injury. The woman was immediately taken into custody, and appearing, on several examinations, to be insane, was sent to Bethlem hospital. The affair, however, excited the most general expression of loyal principles and attachment to his majesty. The city of London addressed the throne in terms of congratulation, and the example was followed by all the corporations and public bodies of the kingdom.

The event, however, of this year which will be longest held in remembrance, is the commencement of the prosecution against Mr. Hastings, which terminated in an impeachment of that gentleman. The instigator and chief conductor of this prosecution was Mr. Edmund Burke. The talents, therefore, and celebrity both of the accuser and the accused, conspired to give no small weight and dignity to a mode of trial at all times solemn and interesting. After much altercation respecting the production of certain papers, necessary for Mr. Burke's purpose, this gentleman exhibited twenty-one charges against Mr. Hastings, and an additional one was presented by Mr. Francis in the following April-month.

The outline of these charges was this :—The first of them related to the war that had been carried on against the Rohillas. The second, to the provinces of Cora and Allahabad, which had been conferred on the Mogul by lord Clive, and the revenues of which had been detained, when that prince withdrew to his capital of Delhi, and put himself under the protection of the Mahrattas. The third treated of the extraordinary aid which had been demanded on account of the war from the rajah of Benares, the fine which had been imposed upon him for refractoriness, and his consequent expulsion from his dominions. The fourth related to the confinement of the princesses of Oude, the imprisoning and fettering their servants with a view to extort money, the distresses which were experienced by their families, and their compulsory resignation of their jaghires or

appanages. The fifth regarded the treatment of the rajah of Farruchabad. The sixth of the rajah of Sahloue. The seventh, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, treated of certain extravagant contracts into which Mr. Hastings had entered on the part of the company; and the enormous salaries which he had bestowed upon sir Eyre Coote, and upon certain boards of his own institution: The eighth treated of money privately received, and of illegal presents. The ninth regarded the authority which Mr. Hastings had given to certain persons in England, to resign the government in his name, and the refusal he had given in India to submit to the consequent appointment of his successor. The thirteenth respected certain embassies to the nabob of Arcot, and the suba of the Decan. The fourteenth related to the desertion of the rana of Gohud, in the conclusion of the Mahratta peace. The fifteenth to the uneconomical and arbitrary management of the revenues of Bengal. The sixteenth charged Mr. Hastings with the declension and ruin of the province of Oude. The seventeenth regarded a certain native called Mahomet Reza Khan, who had for a long time been intrusted with the internal management of Bengal, and was displaced by Mr. Hastings. The eighteenth accused Mr. Hastings of having, at a recent period, delivered up the Mogul into the hands of the Mahrattas. The nineteenth charged him with libelling the court of directors. The twentieth related to the guilt of occasioning the Mahratta war, and the ill faith that had attended the conclusion of the Mahratta peace. The twenty-first regarded suppression of correspondence; and the twenty-second related to the treatment of Fizula Khan.

After surmounting many difficulties that respected the mode of proceeding, on the first day of June, Mr. Burke introduced his motion for impeaching Mr. Hastings on the first charge, which, after a long debate, was negatived. The charge of expelling the rajah of Benares was afterwards debated and allowed, and the greater part of the other charges being also allowed, it was voted that Mr. Hastings be impeached, and Mr. Burke was directed, in the name of the house of commons, and of all the commons of England, to go to the bar of the house of lords, and impeach Mr. Hastings of high crimes and misdemeanors. The message was immediately delivered, and the articles which had been

prepared were sent to the house of lords. On the 21st of the same month Mr. Burke brought up another article of impeachment, and informed the lord chancellor, that Mr. Hastings was then in custody of the serjeant at arms, ready to be delivered at the bar of that house. Mr. Hastings was then ordered into the custody of the usher of the black rod, brought into the house, and the articles were read. The lord chancellor having asked him what he had to say in his defence, Mr. Hastings answered, that he relied on the justice of that house, and requested a copy of the charges, with a reasonable time to make his defence, likewise to be allowed counsel, and admitted to bail; he was accordingly bailed, himself in 20,000*l.* and Messrs. Sumner and Sullivan, his sureties, in 10,000*l.* each, and the second day of the next session of parliament was appointed for the delivery of his defence at the bar of the house of lords.

Leaving the trial, therefore, for the present, we advert to other intermediate events. In the beginning of the session of parliament, a treaty of commerce was laid before the house between Great Britain and France, which A. D.  
1787. had been signed at Versailles, and promised to be of infinite importance to this country, and greatly to lessen the violence of national prejudices. The substance of this treaty was the mutual exchange of every species of commodity, except warlike stores. It was opposed in both houses, but without much strength of argument, and no public bodies of commercial men seemed averse to it. In France it was very unpopular, a proof that its advantages were not so strictly reciprocal as had been stated. In consequence of this treaty, the duties upon Portugal, Spanish, and Madeira wines were reduced to a proportion one-third lower than the new duties upon French wines.

A very considerable relief was given to the merchant, as well as a considerable addition made to the revenue this year by the consolidation of the fractional custom-house duties. It met with almost universal approbation. The annual income and expenditure were represented in a very favourable light, although the opposition, by various statements, endeavoured to prove the fallacy of the minister's accounts. Another material alteration in the collection of the revenue was introduced about this time, namely, the farming of the post-horse tax, which was carried through parliament amidst



considerable opposition. The protestant dissenters applied this session for a repeal of the test and corporation acts, but their application was rejected, although by a majority of only seventy-eight, a circumstance which seemed to promise complete success on a future attempt.

During the preceding year, his royal highness the Prince of Wales, finding his income not sufficient to support that style of splendid expense into which he had fallen, and having been disappointed in obtaining an increase of income which, it was expected, might have been offered (although by him not solicited), took the resolution to lay down his state establishment, and retire, in a certain degree, from public life. No resolution could be more honourable or better received. When it became the subject of public conversation, it was the subject of public regret, that a prince of such promising talents and munificence should be compelled, by pecuniary necessity to forego that splendour which an Englishman always wishes to see enjoyed by the branches of the royal family. Accordingly, after he had remained nine months in the situation of a private gentleman, which time he had employed in liquidating part of his debts, a parliamentary notice of this affair was threatened April 20, by some gentlemen in opposition. Mr. Newnham, 1787. one of the representatives of the city of London, asked Mr. Pitt whether it was his design to bring forward any proposition to rescue the prince from his present embarrassed situation; on Mr. Pitt's answering that he had no command to that purpose from the king, Mr. Newnham gave notice of a formal motion upon the subject. In a conversation which afterwards took place in the house, previous to the day appointed for this motion, a member suggested some alarming doubts respecting a matrimonial connexion supposed to be formed between the young personage in question and a lady of the Roman Catholic persuasion; but assurance was given by the prince's most intimate friends, that this was entirely without foundation. After much altercation in the house, a conference took place out of doors, and a negotiation was opened which prevented the necessity of Mr. Newnham's motion. In consequence of a message from his majesty, the sum of 10,000*l.* per annum was added to the prince's income, 20,000*l.* were granted to carry on the works at Carlton-house; and

161,000*l.* for the discharge of his debts. His majesty's message stated, "that the prince had given the fullest assurance of his determination to confine his future expenses within his income, and had settled a plan, and had fixed an order in those expenses, which, it was trusted, would effectually secure the due success of his exertions."

This year is rendered remarkable by a temporary revolution in the States-General of Holland, promoted chiefly by a French party, but which at length induced the courts of Prussia and Great Britain to interfere. The particulars of this revolution not strictly belonging to this history, it will be sufficient to mention, that the Prussian army, under the duke of Brunswick, entered Holland on the thirteenth of September, and after a short but successful progress, restored tranquillity. France had notified its intention to arm in favour of the Dutch, which occasioned an armament to be fitted out by Great Britain, but which was disbanded by the common consent of the courts of Versailles and St. James's, in the month of October.

The principal transaction of parliament during the ensuing sessions, was the impeachment of Mr. Hastings. 1788. Mr. Hastings gave in his answer to the bar of the house of lords, agreeable to their appointment, and the reply of the house of commons followed it. The thirteenth of February was fixed for the commencement of the trial. On that day, about eleven o'clock, the house of commons preceded by the managers of the impeachment, came from their house into Westminster-hall, which was fitted up with galleries, &c. suited to the occasion. Mr. Burke led the procession, and they took their seats on the benches. Half an hour after, the lords moved from their own chamber of parliament: the clerks of parliament first, the masters of chancery following them, next the serjeants, and then the judges; after them a herald, and then the eldest sons of peers, and peers minor; then, after the ushers, the barons, bishops, viscounts, earls, marquises, dukes, archbishops, and the lord chancellor. The procession closed with the royal family, the son of the duke of Gloucester walking first, and the prince of Wales last. In passing to their seats, they took off their hats and bowed to the throne. After the usual formalities, the trial commenced by the clerks of the court reading the charges; and it continued with intervals for three months.

An act was passed towards the close of this session for the better regulation of the transportation of slaves from Africa to the West Indies. This is chiefly worthy of notice, as being the first step taken in the prosecution of a design becoming the dignity and humanity of the nation, the total abolition of that cruel and nefarious traffic; a traffic which is defensible on no principle that can be honourable to an individual, or to society.

Great Britain, at this time, was enjoying unexampled prosperity; while other European nations were the seat of war and dissension, her increasing commerce and internal tranquillity were the theme of every tongue. Grateful for a constitution to which we owe these blessings, the people had agreed to commemorate the centenary anniversary of the revolution of 1688 with unusual demonstrations of joy. It was accordingly celebrated by men of all parties in every principal town throughout the kingdom, with cheerful festivity and devout thankfulness.

But while the people were thus exulting in the advantages of their happy situation, an unexpected event plunged the nation into grief, and excited the most serious alarms. This was the disposition with which his majesty began to be afflicted in the latter part of the month of October, and which in a few weeks rendered it necessary for the parliament to supply the vacancy of the executive power. Their deliberations were attended with more difficulty than at first seemed to arise from the case itself, or any circumstances connected with it. The difference of opinion between the ministry and the opposition turned on the question, whether the prince of Wales should be appointed regent during the indisposition of his royal father, with the *full* exercise of the executive power? or, whether his power should be so far *restricted* as not to invade any of those prerogatives which can belong only and properly to the king, and cannot be exercised by any person during his life. The ministry were for limiting the power of the regent, and vesting the government of the royal household in the queen, who was to be provided with a council of advice, and when it should appear to the queen, and to the majority of her council, that the king was restored to health, his majesty was to resume his functions, and the regency to cease. These we state as the substance of the plan advanced by the ministry, but

every motion or resolution that composed it, underwent the strictest scrutiny, and was opposed with great vehemence by the other party.

In the mean time, although the ministry had an immediate prospect of retiring from public life, power, and patronage, and to all human appearance an administration was about to be formed, which would include the principal members of opposition, such was the confidence reposed in Mr. Pitt, that all corporations, and public bodies of men assembled to address their thanks to him for having supported the privileges of the people. The houses of lords and commons gave him a decided majority, and the regency, if it had taken place, must have been crippled in all its parts.

Fortunately, however for the nation, as a mutilated executive government might have lessened its consequence, about the time the regency-bill was to pass through the last forms in the house of lords, his majesty's recovery was announced, and to the great joy of the nation, so completed, that he was able to resume the functions of royalty early in the month of March, on the tenth day of which the lord chancellor opened the regular parliament by a speech. The news of this happy event was quickly spread over the kingdom. Nothing was heard but the language of congratulation. The cities of London and Westminster were illuminated with a splendour that realized the decorations of an eastern romance. The 23rd of April was appointed as a day of solemn thanksgiving throughout the kingdom. On that day his majesty, accompanied by the whole royal family, and the two houses of parliament, went to St. Paul's cathedral to return thanks to God for his recovery. The following night the metropolis, and every town and village in the kingdom, were illuminated with a greater degree of splendour, if possible, than on the preceding occasion, and which, indeed, surpassed every idea that could be formed by a description. Both rich and poor strove to excel in this testimony of loyalty, which was alluded to by the Laureat in these beautiful lines :—

Meek Poverty her scanty cottage grac'd,  
And sung her gleam across the lonely waste  
Th' exulting isle in one wide triumph strove  
On a social sacrifice of revernetial love

In Ireland, regency-bills were attempted to be introduced of a similar nature to those in England; but their fate was very different. That parliament rejected every idea of restriction, and offered to the Prince of Wales the regency in its full power. Six commissioners were appointed to bear this offer to the prince; but there, as well as here, the delay was so great, that they did not arrive in England until a few days before his majesty's recovery. Immediately on this recovery being announced to the public, the corporation of London addressed his majesty, and similar addresses were sent from every part of the kingdom.

The first business that engaged the attention of the public after the meeting of parliament was the repeal of the shop-tax. This tax was laid on by Mr. Pitt a few years before, and though not generally oppressive, yet, from its partial principle, had excited an unusual degree of clamour, and many fruitless attempts were made to obtain a repeal. On a motion from Mr. Fox, the house now complied with the public wish. The majority against the repeal of the test and corporation acts on the former application of the dissenters, appearing to be such as promised success to their persevering efforts, a motion for that purpose was again introduced, and the majority against it dwindled down to twenty-two. Here was an additional ground of hope, but how that came to be disappointed will appear hereafter. Considerable progress was made this year in an effort to abolish the slave-trade, which although not completed, yet had gained so great weight with the house, that opposition seemed to die away. All persons concerned in the trade were alarmed, and the table of the house of commons was covered with petitions against it.

The most important alteration in the collection of the revenue which occurred this year, was the extension of the excise laws to the tobacco trade. Great frauds had confessedly been practised for many years in that trade, but the excise being a mode of collection hostile to the spirit of the constitution, and at all times grating to the feelings of Englishmen, its extension could be popular. In this affair, therefore, the minister had to contend against a greater weight of opposition, both within and without doors, than he had been accustomed to; notwithstanding which the measure was carried through both houses. It is to be

observed, that during the administration of sir Robert Walpole, a measure of the same kind was resisted with such force as to hasten the downfall of that minister. During this year, on the death of Mr. Cornwall, speaker of the house of commons, Mr. Grenville succeeded to that high office, and on his accepting the office of secretary of state, the choice of the house fell upon Mr. Henry Addington, who had the singular merit or good fortune to attract the regard of all parties, by the firmness of his conduct and the impartiality of his decisions.

The year we have now concluded will be for ever distinguished in the annals of history by a revolution which took place in France, which has excited and continues to excite the wonder and the astonishment of the world, and which promises to be productive of events in which every nation of Europe may ultimately be interested. It does not come strictly under our plan to detail the various causes which led the way to this great and important event. The distressed state of the French finances, the growing energy of liberal opinion and increased freedom of speech, the intercourse between the enlightened lovers of liberty in England and France, the imbecility of the court, and the desertion of the military to the side of the people, brought on the grand crisis which precipitated the whole government and ancient constitution, its monarchy and aristocracy, its parliaments, courts of law, and privileges, in one heap of ruins. Happy had it been if wisdom and temperance had dictated a cautious policy to those who now obtained the popular command; but the people, emancipated from the yoke of despotism, could not restrain themselves within due bounds; violence was everywhere practised; and the first operations of the popular leaders were rather directed to triumph over slavery, than to establish rational freedom.

The French revolution took place in the year 1789, and when the British parliament met in 1790, it accidentally became the subject of conversation, a circumstance less important in itself than from its consequences. Mr. Burke took this opportunity to censure the leaders of affairs in France with uncommon asperity, and he was answered by his colleagues in opposition, Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan. In reply to the latter gentleman, Mr. Burke declared that from that hour, their political connexion was for ever dissolved.

The ministry seemed rather inclined to favour Mr. Burke's sentiments, while they kept aloof from the warmth of his expressions ; and from this quarrel we are to date that disunion among the members of the opposition party, which has since become more wide, and perhaps to it may be referred many other events of importance which considerably affected the peace of the nation.

We have already given an account of two attempts made within a few years to obtain a repeal of the test and corporation acts. On the last of these occasions the success of the dissenters was such as, in all human probability, to ensure the object of their wishes on a future application. But as the dissenters were known, or at least supposed, to be firm friends to the French revolution, and had applauded with a considerable degree of enthusiasm the proceedings that followed it, an alarm was taken by the advocates for the church and constitution. Accordingly when the motion for the repeal of the above acts was introduced again into the house, Mr. Burke took occasion to give such a representation of the principles of the dissenters as seemed to have more than common weight with the members present ; and such were the arguments advanced by the ministry against the repeal, in the present state of affairs, and such the prevailing dread of innovation, that the motion was rejected by a majority of nearly three to one. About four hundred members gave their votes on this occasion.

On the same grounds, and from the same dread of innovation, while the dangers of innovation in France were too obvious, a motion for a reformation in the state of parliamentary representation, introduced by Mr. Flood, would have been rejected, perhaps without any division, had not the mover been advised to withdraw it. The substance of Mr. Flood's plan was, that one hundred members should be added to the present house of commons, to be elected by a new and numerous body of electors, the resident householders in every county. He also proposed that the sheriff of each county should be required to take the poll of the resident householders in each parish on the same day.

Very little domestic business of more importance than has been detailed, engaged the attention of parliament during the remainder of the present session, but a dispute took place between our court and that of Spain, which

threatened to terminate in mutual hostilities. Some British merchants had, in the year 1786, formed the project of opening a trade to Port Nootka, or King George's Sound, for the purpose of supplying the Chinese markets with furs. In the year 1788, they had secured to themselves an apparently permanent settlement; but the Spaniards resented the intrusion of the English into that part of the world; and in May, 1789, a Spanish frigate captured two English vessels, and at the same time took possession of the settlement which the English had formed. When this affair was laid before the house of commons, the ministry were authorized to take such steps as might obtain redress from the Spanish court; an armament was prepared which cost nearly three millions sterling. Whether from its formidable appearance, or that Spain was seriously inclined to pacific measures, is uncertain, but the consequence was, that the court of Madrid at length consented that the satisfaction and indemnification required by the English ambassador, should be granted as a preliminary. In the convention that followed, the restoration of the buildings and vessels, and the reparation of the losses sustained by the British subjects, were secured; and both nations were to partake of the rights of navigation and fishery under certain stipulated conditions. The conclusion of this affair is here, for the sake of connexion, antedated, as it did not take place before the assembling of the next parliament. In the month of June the parliament was dissolved.

The new parliament assembled on the 25th of November, 1790. His majesty in his opening speech, expressed his satisfaction that the differences with Spain had been brought to an amicable conclusion, and that though the war between Russia and the Porte still continued, Austria had made peace with the latter, and Russia had concluded a peace with Sweden. The terms of the convention with Spain were ratified and approved in both houses of parliament by great majorities. In order to defray the expense of this armament, without any increase of the national debt, Mr. Pitt proposed certain temporary taxes, which would discharge the incumbrance in four years, and a loan of five hundred thousand pounds from the bank, without interest, so long as a floating balance to that amount should remain in the hands of the cashier. The reason of these apparently liberal terms was this, Mr.



Pitt originally intended to take five hundred thousand pounds from the unclaimed dividends lying in the Bank of England, the amount of which was estimated at six hundred and sixty thousand pounds. But this measure being opposed, as having a tendency to diminish the confidence of the public in the guardians of their property, he consented to accept the loan upon the terms above-mentioned. The measure, however, had one very singular effect. The directors of the bank found themselves called upon to publish a list of the unclaimed dividends, with the names of the claimants, by which means vast numbers recovered property of which they knew nothing, but which had been carelessly left, or forgot by their ancestors in the adjustment of accounts with the bank.

Soon after the meeting of parliament, motions were made by Mr. Burke, the leader of the impeachment of Mr. Hastings, for the renewal of that memorable trial, when it was found that a question, apparently of easy solution, if we consider the true ends and purposes of justice, was notwithstanding liable to very many doubts. All the gentlemen in parliament who were of the profession of the law, whether on the ministerial or opposition side, contended that, in consequence of the dissolution of parliament, the impeachment had abated. This occasioned very long and warm debates; precedents were sought, and authorities placed against authorities; but the final issue determined in favour of the impeachment, in which, however, very little progress was made during the present session, which was nearly concluded before the grand question was discussed.

Early in the year 1791, a bill was passed with little opposition, to relieve the English Roman Catholics from certain legal penalties existing against them, on condition of their subscribing a declaration or protest against the authority of the pope, couched in terms which could not be well objected to by the more liberal members of that religion, but which occasioned some discontent, as it seemed to establish a distinction between those who did and those who did not protest. In April, Mr. Wilberforce, introduced a motion which had long been expected, for the abolition of the slave-trade; but it was negatived by a majority of seventy-five voices. A bill, however, passed for chartering a company for the purpose of cultivating West

Indian and other tropical products at Sierra Leone, on the coast of Africa, by the use of free negroes. This company in proportion to its success, which, notwithstanding many unavoidable obstacles, has been considerable, must hereafter very materially affect the interests of the West India colonies.

One of the most important acts of this session was the establishment of a regular form of government in Canada. This province was now ordered to be divided into two distinct governments, by the appellations of upper and lower Canada. Councils nominated by the sovereign, and houses of assembly chosen by the people, were established in each. The Habeas Corpus act was asserted as a fundamental law of their constitution, and parliament was restrained from imposing any taxes, but such as might be necessary for the regulation of trade and commerce, and the produce of such taxes was to be at the disposal of the respective provincial legislatures. This arrangement met with general approbation. It was in some points, however, opposed by Mr. Fox, who proposed annual, or triennial elections, instead of septennial, and objected to the power reserved by the crown of annexing to certain honorary and titular distinctions an hereditary right of sitting in council. These objections served to introduce some allusions to the destruction of hereditary titles and honours in France, which called up Mr. Burke, who, after a sharp altercation with Mr. Fox, with whom he had acted nearly the whole of his parliamentary career, took a solemn leave of that gentleman, as he had formerly taken of Mr. Sheridan. Mr. Fox, who burst into tears at this unexpected termination of their friendship, offered concessions, which the other rejected with contempt, and their union was dissolved for ever.

Previous to the close of this session, the country was again alarmed with the prospect of a war with Russia. When Leopold, king of Hungary, ascended the throne, he concluded a peace with the Ottoman Porte, in August, 1790. This negotiation was brought about principally by the agency of the British government, and an intimation was now made from the same quarter to the empress of Russia, that it was the pleasure of the British court that peace should be restored between the Ottoman and Russian empires. She peremptorily rejected this interference, and a

message was sent to the house of commons from his majesty, importing, that the endeavours which he had used in conjunction with his allies to effect a pacification not having proved successful, his majesty judged it requisite, in order to add weight to his representations, to make some further augmentation of his naval force. But when this message came to be taken into consideration, the opposition to a Russian war was so vigorously urged within doors, and was so generally popular without, that, although Mr. Pitt's motion in consequence of the message was carried, the votes against it were so numerous as to induce him to give up the object in view; and without the farther interference of the British court, a peace was concluded between Russia and the Porte, on terms favourable to the former, in the month of August. This session of parliament closed on the 10th of June.

We have already noticed, that in 1789, a revolution took place in France, of that sweeping kind before which every ancient establishment in church and state, in government and society, gave way. The scenes that are about to open between Great Britain and France, render some farther notice of that revolution necessary in this place. The deranged situation of the finances of the country, occasioned in a considerable degree by the American war, which gratified the pride, while it undermined the strength of the French court, had induced his christian majesty to convoke, first an assembly of the notables, or principal men in the kingdom; and, secondly, when these were found inadequate to the task, the states-general, which had not been assembled since the reign of Louis XIII. in 1614. These consisted of three orders, the nobility, the clergy, and the third estate, or commons. The last were double the number of the other two orders united; and, when the states-general were assembled at Versailles, a contest arose, whether the three orders should make three distinct houses, or be blended in one assembly. The third estate insisted upon the latter, and were inflexible on this point: and assuming the title of national assembly, they declared that, as such, they were competent to proceed to business, without the concurrence of the other two orders if they still refused to join them. In the sequel the nobility found it necessary to concede the point, and they all met in one hall. In the meantime Paris was encircled by an army of fifty thousand men, with the appa-

rent view of coercing that city, if necessary. Notwithstanding this, on the removal of the popular minister, M. Necker, in July, 1789, a dreadful insurrection ensued in Paris; the military refused to fire upon the people; the Bastile, a prison long formidable to the Parisians, was captured by the citizens; the governor and some other obnoxious persons were beheaded, and their heads carried about in horrid triumph, on poles; in a word, eight weeks after the opening of the states-general on the fifth of May, a revolution was effected, which excited astonishment in all Europe. On the 17th of July, the king visited the Hotel de Ville, in Paris, and surrendered himself, as it were, to the people. From that moment he was deprived of all power as a monarch. The national assembly, now triumphant, proceeded to new-model the state. They abolished nobility and the whole feudal system; and confiscating the possessions of the clergy, rendered them dependent for support on a public allowance, like the servants of the state: and all the monasteries were suppressed. In October, in consequence of another dreadful riot at Versailles, the king, the royal family, and the national assembly, were removed to Paris. The king was now, in fact, a state-prisoner, treated with the formalities appendant to royalty, but watched in all his motions with the utmost circumspection. From this irksome situation he attempted to escape in June, 1791, with the queen, his sister, the dauphin, and the princess his daughter. He had almost reached the frontiers, when he was arrested at Varennes, and conducted back to Paris. Such, however, was then the moderation of the popular party, that no disastrous consequence ensued. The national assembly completed a new Constitution, which was accepted by the king in September of the same year, when this assembly dissolved itself, and a new one was chosen to the exclusion of every member of the former, a measure of self-denial which laid the foundation for all the future miseries of France.

When intelligence of this revolution first reached England no measures had been adopted by the national assembly which were particularly obnoxious. In their progress, however, when they attacked those forms which are connected with our monarchical system, it was seen by some, and generally disseminated by writings, particularly a celebrated work by Mr. Burke, that their intentions were the destruc-

tion of monarchy, and the establishment of republicanism, or anarchy, such as prevailed in the commotions of the reign of Charles I. Various societies in this country, on the contrary, saw in all this only the restoration of liberty to twenty-five millions of fellow-creatures, and rejoiced in the event. In the year 1790, some of these societies met to celebrate the revolution of 1789, and these meetings were attended by persons of different political principles. The publication of Mr. Burke's *Reflections* about the conclusion of the same year, gave rise to a controversy, in which abstract principles of government were discussed with no great delicacy of temper; and works of a very seditious tendency appeared in answer to Mr. Burke. The whole nation became involved in a war of principles, and hence in the summer of 1791, when the French Revolution became again the subject of a commemoration, the populace were incited to resent this introduction of a democratic spirit. In London, although a very numerous company assembled to celebrate the 14th of July, 1789, such was the vigour of the police that the day passed quietly; but in Birmingham, where a small company had agreed to meet, a dangerous riot took place. The mob rose in the afternoon, dispersed the company assembled at an hotel, and then proceeded to take vengeance on those, who, though not present, had rendered themselves obnoxious. Two dissenting meeting-houses were burnt to the ground. The house of Dr. Priestley, a philosopher of great eminence, was attacked, from which he had barely time to escape. The furniture, library, and extensive philosophical apparatus were set on fire, and totally consumed. The houses of a few other gentlemen, the friends of Gallic liberty, were also destroyed, without any immediate molestation from the civil power. Peace was not restored till the arrival of some troops from Nottingham. Many of the rioters were afterwards taken into custody and tried, and three were executed.

A. D. The parliament did not assemble till the thirty-first of January, 1792. In the royal speech, his majesty announced the marriage of his son, the duke of York, with the princess Frederica, daughter of the king of Prussia. He informed the houses, that a treaty had been concluded, under his mediation and that of his allies, between the emperor and the Ottoman Porte, and prelimi-

naries had been agreed upon between the latter of those powers and Russia. These subjects occasioned considerable debates in the house, but the motions founded upon them were carried by great majorities. Mr. Pitt laid before the house a most flattering state of the public finances, and thought himself authorized to propose the repeal of a part of the more burdensome taxes, to the amount of about 200,000*l.* per annum, and at the same time to apply the sum of 400,000*l.* to the reduction of the national debt, in aid of the annual million appropriated by parliament. These sums were stated to be part of a clear surplus of 900,000*l.* on the annual revenue. The minister added, that although it was impossible to count with certainty on our present prosperity, unquestionably there never was a time when, from the situation of Europe, we might more reasonably expect a durable peace than at the present moment.

At the instance of Mr. Wilberforce, the affair of the slave-trade was again introduced on the second of April, and he renewed his motion for the abolition. Mr. Dundas, now secretary of state, in the room of the duke of Leeds, who resigned in the preceding year, moved that the word *gradual* should be inserted before *abolition*. Mr. Pitt decidedly opposed this alteration, in a speech replete with eloquent and pathetic sentiments; but it was carried by a majority of sixty-eight votes. Mr. Dundas then moved, that "the importation of negroes into the British colonies should cease on the first of January, 1800." Lord Mornington, however, proposed the first of January, 1796, and a series of resolutions founded on this basis were then agreed to, and sent up to the house of peers, where they were postponed for the present session, by a motion, that evidence be heard, not before a select committee, but at the bar of the house. On this occasion, his royal highness the duke of Clarence, his majesty's third son, distinguished himself in a speech against the abolition.

In the course of the last session, Mr. Fox had moved for a bill to ascertain the right of juries in matters of libel, which passed through the house of commons, but was rejected by the lords. This year he again moved the same, and it passed into a law, but was strongly opposed in the house of lords, and a protest against it, signed by the lord-chancellor (Thurlow), lords Bathurst, Kenyon, (lord chief justice),

Abingdon, Walsingham, and the bishop of Bangor. By this bill, however, the duties of juries in matters of libel, as respecting fact and law, are explicitly laid down.

The numerous seditious writings which had appeared since the French revolution, gave considerable uneasiness to administration; and in the month of May, a royal proclamation was issued against them, enjoining magistrates to vigilance in repressing such attempts to disturb the peace of the realm. This proclamation being laid before parliament, loyal addresses were presented from both houses, and were followed by addresses in the same spirit from all parts of the kingdom, and prosecutions were instituted against the publishers or authors of seditious writings. Thomas Paine, author of two books, entitled "The Rights of Man," was convicted in the court of king's-bench, but had left the kingdom before his trial and was afterwards outlawed.

The only other subject of importance agitated in this session, related to the war in India, of which it will now be necessary to give some account. From the year 1784, when the East India company concluded a peace with Tippoo Saib, he had grown very formidable, and was supposed to have been attached to the interests of the court of France, by which he was incited to disturb our possessions. In the summer of 1789 he made an attack against Cranganore, a fort which had been recently sold by the Dutch to the Rajah of Travancore, an ally of the English company. On the first of May, 1790, the Rajah made an attack on the army of Tippoo, and the English government joined in defence of their ally. The grand Carnatic army immediately assembled under the command of general Meadows, and marched through the southern or Coimbatore country, and advanced towards the city of Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore. On the western side the Bombay army, under general Abercrombie, after reducing Cannanore and several other places on the coast, entered the kingdom of Mysore. The sultan, Tippoo, defending himself with great resolution, general Meadows found it necessary to retreat to the vicinity of Madras, where in the month of December, 1790, lord Cornwallis, the governor-general, took the command of the army in person, and resolved to force a passage to Seringapatam through the country lying directly westward of Madras. On the twenty-first of March, 1791, the important

town of Bangalore was taken by storm, with little loss on the part of the British; on the thirteenth of May, the army arrived in sight of the capital of Mysore, defended by the sultan in person, and on the next day, an action took place, in which Tippoo sustained a partial defeat, but the swelling of the Caverry, in an island near to which Seringapatam is situated, together with the want of provisions, compelled lord Cornwallis to retreat to Bangalore, at the same time that general Abercrombie, who had planned a junction with lord Cornwallis, was also obliged to lead back his army, amidst innumerable disappointments and fatigues. The next campaign, however, was decisive. In the month of February, 1792, the eastern and western armies effected a junction under the walls of Seringapatam. On the seventh a general attack was made by moonlight on the lines of the sultan, in consequence of which, the capital became closely and completely invested. Upon this, Tippoo sent a vakeel to the camp of lord Cornwallis to sue for peace, which was granted upon the following terms:—That he should cede one-half of his dominions to the allied powers, pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees, as an indemnification for the expenses of the war; release all the prisoners, and deliver two of his sons as hostages for the due performance of the treaty. These terms being accepted, on the nineteenth of March, the definitive treaty, signed by the sultan, was delivered by the young princes, the hostages, into the hands of lord Cornwallis. This war was supposed to have been provoked by the intrigues of the court of France, now in no condition to support projects of the kind. On the fifteenth of June the session of parliament closed with a speech, in which his majesty expressed his great concern at the actual commencement of hostilities in different parts of Europe.

This alludes to the declaration of war made by the French against the emperor of Germany in the month of April, and a league having been formed between the emperor and the king of Prussia against the measures of the French assembly, the forces of the two powers were united, and the command of the combined army given to the duke of Brunswick Lunenburgh, who, in the month of July, published from Coblenz, a declaration addressed to the inhabitants of France, and stating the causes for which Prussia and Ger-



many had united their forces: to co-operate with him in those purposes, the duke invited the sober part of the nation, which he considered as the majority, to declare themselves openly against the odious enterprises of their oppressors; and, as general commandant in chief of the two armies, he declared, that the allied powers had no other object in view than the welfare of France, without any pretence to enrich themselves by making conquests; but to restore the king to that safety which was necessary to his making such convocations as he should think proper, and for endeavouring to ensure the welfare of his subjects according to his promises, and to the utmost of his power. All national guards (for so the new military in France were now called) who should oppose the entrance of the combined army into France, if taken with arms in their hands, were to be treated as enemies, and punished as rebels to their king, and as disturbers of the public peace. The regular French troops were likewise required to submit, and, upon noncompliance, were threatened to be treated as rebels to their lawful sovereign; and the inhabitants of cities, towns, or districts of all descriptions, who should molest the troops of the allied army in their progress, should be punished with loss of life, and confiscation of their estates. The governing powers of Paris, and its inhabitants in general were called upon instantly, and without delay, to set their king at liberty, and submit to him, on pain of military execution on refusal. If the palace of the Tuilleries should be forced or insulted, if the least violence should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, and, if they were not immediately placed in safety and set at liberty, the city of Paris should be given up to military execution, and exposed to total destruction. All acts of the king, while restrained, were declared to be null and void.

This ill-judged publication produced effects the very opposite of what were intended. The executive power of France was suspected, not only of not properly exerting the national force against the enemy, but of acting in concert with them, and with the emigrant princes, and others who were in arms against their country. This suspicion, however slightly founded, proved fatal to the king, although one of the most humane princes that had ever sat on the throne of France. In August, 1792, the mayor of Paris, at the head

of a deputation from that city, appeared at the bar of the national assembly, and demanded the deposition of the king. Before they could deliberate on this demand, a dreadful insurrection ensued: the Thuilleries, the residence of the royal family, was attacked; the Swiss guards were defeated and massacred; and the king and royal family, fled for refuge to the national assembly. That body instantly decreed the suspension of the executive power in the hands of the king, and the convocation of a national convention. The king and his family were conveyed to a house in Paris, called the Temple, and there kept in close confinement, accompanied by circumstances of studied cruelty and humiliation. The convention met on the twenty-first of September, and instantly decreed the abolition of royalty, and the formation of a republic on the principles of what they termed liberty and equality. In December following, they decreed that the king should be tried before them. The trial accordingly took place, and this tribunal, which absurdly exercised at once the incompatible characters of accusers, prosecutors, and judges, condemned the unfortunate monarch, who was, in pursuance of their sentence, publicly beheaded, in the Place de Louis XV. now called the Place de la Revolution, on the 21st of January, 1793. It ought to be added, that since the deposition of the king, the prisons had been filled with persons accused of disaffection to the ruling powers, and on the 2nd of September they were forced open, and a most horrid and indiscriminate massacre of the prisoners took place. Other suspected persons, many thousand priests, and the principal nobility had made their escape, and the greater part took refuge in England, where an allowance was provided for the poorer sort. After various successes, the combined armies were attacked at Jemeppe, near Mons, by the French army, and a signal victory gained: before the end of the year the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxemburgh and Liege, were subjected to the arms of France. So rapid was their progress, and so great were the distresses of the combined armies, arising from a scarcity of provisions, from a long rainy season, and from a considerable mortality among the Prussians, that the latter retreated from the dominions of France, and the Austrians soon followed them.

These events were not beheld with unconcern in England.

Decrees passed in the national convention, supposed hostile to the peace of this country, induced the ministry to call the parliament together as early as the thirteenth of December, previous to which a royal proclamation was issued, stating, that notwithstanding the late proclamation of the twenty-first of May, the utmost industry was still employed by evil-disposed persons within the kingdom, acting in concert with persons in foreign parts, with a view to subvert the laws and constitution; and that a spirit of tumult and disorder, thereby excited, had lately shown itself in acts of riot and insurrection; and that these causes moving him thereto, his majesty had forthwith resolved to embody part of the militia of the kingdom. This proclamation occasioned great alarm; the troops were marched to the vicinity of the metropolis, the guard at the bank doubled, and the fortifications of the Tower of London repaired, while meetings were held in all parts of the kingdom, from whence issued loyal addresses to the throne, more pointedly in support of the king and constitution than any which had yet been published.

In the opening speech, his majesty alluded to the necessity he was under of attending to the internal government of France; the strong and increasing indications which had appeared there, of an intention to excite disturbances in other countries, to disregard the rights of neutral nations, and pursue views of conquest and aggrandizement, as well as to adopt towards his allies the states-general, measures which were neither conformable to the law of nations nor to the positive stipulations of existing treaties. Under these circumstances, his majesty thought it right to have recourse to those means of prevention and internal defence with which he was intrusted by law, and to make some augmentation of his naval and military force. The opposition to these measures was very ineffectual, an amendment to the address having been supported by only fifty voices against two hundred and ninety in the house of commons. In that of the lords, the address was carried without division, and the most vigorous preparations for war were begun. A bill for forcibly transporting aliens out of the kingdom was passed, and the ports of Great Britain were shut against the exportation of corn to France, while it was permitted to her enemies. In the end, the ambassador of the republic,

M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the authority of the alien-bill, at a short notice, out of the kingdom: and all hopes of reconciliation being precluded by the respective measures adopted by France and England, the convention, on the 1st of February, 1793, unanimously declared the republic of France at war with the king of Great Britain, and the stadtholder of Holland.

The war now commenced on the part of Great Britain, in conjunction with the allied powers of <sup>A. D.</sup> Germany and Prussia. <sup>1793.</sup> Troops were sent to the continent, and the duke of York, his majesty's second son, appointed commander-in-chief. The campaign was, upon the whole, favourable to the combined armies. They defeated the French under general Miranda, and raised the siege of Maestricht. Those under general Valence were also defeated, and soon after general Dumourier, who assumed the command of the disconcerted armies of Valence and Miranda, was attacked by the prince of Cobourg and general Clairfait, and defeated at Tirlemont, and finding himself opposed in his plans by the French rulers, after an ineffectual attempt to seduce his army, he made his escape into England, which he was immediately ordered to leave. Condé and Valenciennes surrendered to the combined armies, the latter to the duke of York, who made afterwards an unsuccessful attempt on Dunkirk. In the mean time the English and Spanish fleets were received into the harbour of Toulon, where lord Hood published a proclamation, declaring his intention in entering the harbour, which was to retain the ships, naval stores, and arsenal, until a regal government should be established in France, and then they were to be restored to the monarch. Toulon was now garrisoned with eighteen thousand men of different nations, the kings of Spain, Naples, and Sardinia, having joined the confederacy against France. Sweden, Denmark, Tuscany, and Genoa, remained neutral. In November, sir Gilbert Elliot, general O'Hara, and lord Hood, were appointed commissioners to treat with the French royalists at Toulon. The French, however, in the beginning of December, by vigorous attacks, regained Toulon, and the combined fleets, before abandoning the place, on the eighteenth of that month set fire to the arsenals, blew up the powder-magazine, and burnt nine ships of the line, besides frigates and ships

on the docks. In the West Indies, a detachment of British troops effected a landing upon that part of the island of Hispaniola, which belonged to the French.

During this campaign, Paris presented a scene of horrors unparalleled in the history of civilized nations. Numerous executions took place of not only individuals, but whole families suspected of disaffection to the ruling power, which was now chiefly in the hands of Maximilian Robespierre, a man risen from obscurity, and known only for his crimes. Among the illustrious victims of his cruelty was the helpless and unoffending queen, who perished by the guillotine, on the 16th of October, in the thirty-eighth year of her age. Her sufferings had been previously aggravated by the mockery of a trial.

In England various persons were tried for seditious publications; and in Scotland two were tried for seditious practices, and banished to Botany Bay.

The parliament met on the twenty-first of January; A. D. 1794. in the royal speech his majesty adverted to the successes of the preceding campaign at Valenciennes, Toulon, and the Indies; and to pursue the war with vigour was declared to be the duty we owed to ourselves, in order to compel the French to such terms as might be suitable to our honour. The sentiments of this speech were vigorously combated by the opposition, now thinned of their numbers by the desertion of the duke of Portland, earl Fitzwilliam, earl Spencer, lord Loughborough, appointed lord-chancellor, and many distinguished members of the house of commons. An immense majority, therefore, voted on the side of the ministry. For the service of the navy eighty-five thousand men were granted; and the total of the British army, including regulars, militia, and fencibles, was stated to be above 140,000 troops. The supply of the year was estimated at 19,940,000*l.* and eleven millions were allowed to be raised by loan. An ineffectual attempt was made to revive the subject of abolishing the slave-trade, to which the house of lords continued to show the greatest reluctance. Administration exerted themselves to frustrate the designs of a decree passed in the French convention, respecting French property in foreign countries, which enacted that all merchants, capitalists, and others, who are possessed of funds in foreign countries, shall make a declaration of all the effects

and funds possessed by them abroad, and of all the merchandises in foreign countries. To counteract the natural effects of this measure, the English parliament passed a bill to prevent the application of debts in the hands of any of the subjects belonging to his majesty, to or for the disposal of persons resident in France under the power of the persons who exercise the present government in France, and for preserving the produce of such property to the individual owners thereof.

As the French had also threatened this country with an invasion, it became necessary to call forth a force sufficient to repel the attempt. For this purpose the secretary of state addressed circular letters to the lord lieutenants of the several counties, ordering them to take the sense of the inhabitants upon the best mode to be pursued, in order to ensure the internal defence of the kingdom, either in case of invasion by a foreign enemy, or in case of riots and disturbances at home. In consequence of these letters, meetings were held in most cities and considerable towns in the kingdom, and large sums of money were subscribed to raise troops. A bill was afterwards introduced, but passed with considerable opposition, to empower his majesty to employ Frenchmen in the British service. A large sum of money was also voted as a subsidy to the king of Prussia.

On the twelfth of May, the secretary of state brought a message from his majesty, purporting that, having received information that seditious practices had lately been carried on by certain societies in London, in correspondence with societies in different parts of the country, and avowedly directed to the object of assembling a pretended general convention of the people, in contempt and defiance of the authority of parliament, he had therefore given directions for seizing the books and papers of the said societies in London, which had been seized accordingly; and that his majesty had also given orders for laying them before the house of commons, and recommending them to consider the same. About this time, one Hardy, a shoemaker, secretary of the London Corresponding Society, and Mr. Adams, secretary to the Constitutional Society, together with Mr. Horne Tooke, John Thelwall, and Jeremiah Joyce, were taken up and committed to the Tower, under a charge of high-treason. A bill was also brought in to empower his

majesty to secure and detain such persons as shall be suspected of conspiring against his person and government: this to remain in force until February, 1799.—The session closed on the 11th of July.

The success of the allied armies was this year completely reversed. The allies lost the advantageous position they had formerly acquired, and what was of infinite consequence to France, she had quelled a most dangerous rebellion, as it was called, in la Vendée, upon which the hopes of Europe were fixed. But the mortification arising from these events was considerably lessened by the brilliant success of the British arms in other quarters. Martinico, St. Lucie, and Guadaloupe, in the West Indies, were taken, and Corsica not only submitted to our arms, but consented to remain under the British crown, and to be governed by a constitution framed for the purpose. But the most splendid action of the war hitherto, was the victory gained by lord Howe, over the French fleet, on the 2nd of June. The French had twenty-six sail of the line, and the English twenty-five. Seven of the French ships were captured, and most of the remainders materially damaged. The rejoicings on account of this victory were great and general. In the East Indies, the French lost Pondicherry, Chandénagore, and Mahé.

In the course of this campaign, however, the French had stretched their arms to the western borders of Spain, with considerable success, and their other army regained the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, Landrecy, Quesnoy, Condé, and Valenciennes. They also gained possession of Ostend, Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp, and in December, by the great rivers being frozen, their armies were enabled to pass the Rhine, and the Waal, and by a series of manœuvres soon overran the United Provinces, but this event more strictly belongs to the ensuing year.

The principal occurrence which drew the attention of the public at the close of this year, was the State Trials. On the 2nd of October, a special commission was opened for the trial of Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, John Augustus Bonney, Stewart Kyd, Jeremiah Joyce, Thomas Holcroft, John Richter, John Thelwall, John Baxter, Thomas Wardle, Matthew Moore, and Richard Hodgson, for high treason. Of these, Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and

John Thelwall, only, were tried, and acquitted, and the rest were dismissed without trial.

On the 30th of December, the two houses of parliament met, and his majesty stated in the opening speech, that notwithstanding the disappointments and reverses which were experienced in the course of the last campaign, he retained a firm conviction of the necessity of persisting in a vigorous prosecution of the just and necessary war in which we were engaged. His majesty also observed, that the states-general had been led by a sense of present difficulties, to enter into a negotiation for peace with the party now prevailing in France; that he had accepted the crown and sovereignty of Corsica; that he had concluded a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, with the United States of America; and that a treaty of marriage had been concluded for the prince of Wales and the princess Caroline, daughter of the duke of Brunswick.

Much of this session was distinguished by motions made by the opposition, to obtain a repeal of the act A. D. 1795. by which the *habeas-corpus* act was suspended; to prove that the existence of the present government of France should not be considered, at this time, as precluding a negotiation for peace, and to promote other measures hostile to those of the administration; but these were all negatived by large majorities. At the same time petitions for peace were presented to the throne from several counties and corporations, some paying respect to the ministry, and others loading them with censure. To some of these last, counters petitions were presented. For the purpose of carrying on the war, a sum amounting to six millions was voted to be raised to enable the Emperor of Germany to send into the field an army of two hundred thousand men. An hundred thousand men were voted for our navy. The total of the supplies for the year, including six millions of exchequer-bills, amounting to the sum of twenty-eight millions one hundred and twenty-eight thousand pounds. The sum to be borrowed this year was eighteen millions, and the new taxes were laid upon wine, spirits, tea, insurance, customs, stamp-duties, regulation of franking, and hair-powder-licenses.

On Wednesday the eighth of April, his royal highness the prince of wales was married to the princess Caroline of



Brunswick, his cousin; and on the twenty-seventh, a message was delivered from his majesty to both houses of parliament, relative to the debts of the prince of Wales, and an increase of his establishment. The purport of the message was, that the debts should be gradually discharged from the produce of the duchy of Cornwall, and part of the increased allowance for the establishment of his household. A bill was brought in for these purposes, which occasioned very warm debates. Mr. Pitt stated the prince's debts to be between 6 and 700,000*l.* no part of which could be defrayed out of the civil list, as so many charges had lately fallen on that, and moved, that the sum of 125,000*l.* *per annum*, be allowed the prince, exclusive of the duchy of Cornwall. This was carried, though with great opposition, and a part of his highness's revenue being appropriated to pay his debts, commissioners were appointed to manage that business; these were the speaker of the house of commons, the chancellor of the exchequer, the master of the rolls, the master of his majesty's household, and the surveyor of the crown-lands. On the 27th of June, the parliament was prorogued.

It has already been noticed, that the severity of the winter, by freezing the rivers in Holland, gave the French army under general Pichegru, an easy access to that country. The states of Friesland first renounced their alliance with England, and entered into treaty with the French. On the 10th of January the French crossed the Waal, with an army of 70,000 men, and attacked general Walmoden, who commanded the allied army on the departure of the duke of York, and who was now everywhere defeated; and no further opposition remaining, the cities of Utrecht, Rotterdam, &c. opened their gates to the French, who soon after took possession of the whole of the United Provinces. The stadtholder, upon receiving intelligence that the French had crossed the Waal, took immediate measures for his flight, and to secure what property he could. He very fortunately effected his escape on board a small vessel, which was ready to sail, on the nineteenth, and, after some difficulty, arrived with his family in England, where the palace of Hampton-court was fitted up by the beneficence of the British sovereign, for his reception. The Dutch proceeded after this to form a new republican constitution on the French model, and

entered into an alliance offensive and defensive with the people, who have since treated them rather as a conquered province than an independent nation in alliance. The British troops which survived the defeat of Walmoden, returned to England, through the greatest hardships and difficulties.

Towards the close of this campaign, however, the Austrians gained considerable advantages, compelling the French to repass the Rhine, and forcing their intrenchments near Mayence, which were deemed impregnable. On this occasion one hundred and six pieces of cannon, two hundred ammunition waggons, and two thousand prisoners, fell into the hands of the Austrians, and soon after the city of Mannheim surrendered, and towards the latter end of December, a truce was agreed upon for three months, during which time preparations were made for a campaign the most memorable in the annals of history. On the other hand, the French had penetrated with very inconsiderable opposition, so far into the Spanish territories, as to cut off one member from the grand alliance. The court of Spain, alarmed for its existence, entered into a treaty of peace and alliance with the French government in the month of August. On the part of Great Britain, a body of French emigrants, admitted into British pay, and amounting nearly to seven thousand, were landed on the French coast to co-operate with the insurgents in that quarter, but on the twenty-first of July, they were surprised by the republicans, and were all killed or made prisoners, except nine hundred of the original body, and about fifteen hundred royalists who had joined them, and escaped on board the fleet. The principal emigrants taken were afterwards put to death by military execution.

By sea the British fleet still preserved its superiority. On the twenty-third of June, lord Bridport, with the squadron under his command, attacked the French fleet close in with Port l'Orient. The ships which struck were the *Alexander*, the *Formidable*, and *Le Tigre*, which were with difficulty retained. If the enemy had not been protected and sheltered by the land, his lordship had reason to believe that the number would have been greater. Early on that morning, the headmost ships, the *Irresistible*, *Orion*, *Queen Charlotte*, *Russel*, *Colossus*, and *Sans-pareil*, were nearly up with the enemy; and a little before six o'clock the action

began and continued till nine. The Cape of Good Hope and Trincomalee, in the island of Ceylon, were added to the possessions of Great Britain. In the Mediterranean, the fleet under admiral Hotham engaged with the French fleet, and took two ships of the line, but with the loss of an English line-of-battle ship. The French also, in the course of this year, took the Berwick and the Censeur, both of the line, and some merchant-men. But their success in negotiation was more decisive in favour of the republic. Besides Spain, they concluded treaties of peace with the Dutch, the grand duke of Tuscany, Hesse Cassel, and the elector of Hanover, and at last with the court of Berlin. They also in this year adopted a new form of constitution, by which the legislative body consisted of a council of ancients, amounting to two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred. The executive power was intrusted to a directory of five members, nominated by the two councils, one of whom was to quit his station annually.

On the twenty-third of April, the impeachment of Warren Hastings, esq. was finally determined in Westminster-hall. Of the members of the house of commons, near four hundred attended, but of peers only twenty-nine who determined to vote. On the first article of the charge, the earls Radnor, Suffolk, Fitzwilliam, and Caernarvon, the duke of Norfolk, and the lord-chancellor, pronounced him guilty; but the other twenty-three peers pronounced him ~~not~~ not guilty. Upon the other charges their verdict was nearly the same. When the court had gone through the sixteen questions in this manner, Mr. Hastings was called to the bar, and informed by the lord-chancellor, that he was acquitted of the charges preferred against him by the house of commons, and that he was then discharged upon paying his fees. This memorable trial commenced on the twelfth of February, 1788, but such were the delays by long adjournments, that the court in all this time had sat only one hundred and forty-nine days.

The parliament assembled again on the twenty-ninth of October. His majesty assured the two houses, that it was a great satisfaction to him to reflect, that the prospect of affairs had been materially improved in the course of the present year; that the distractions and anarchy which had so long prevailed in France, had led to a crisis of which it was then impossible to foresee the issue; but if that crisis should ter-

minate in any order of things compatible with the tranquillity of other countries, and afford a reasonable expectation of security in any treaty which might be concluded, the appearance of a disposition to negotiate for a general peace on just and suitable terms, would not fail to be met on his part with an earnest desire to give it the most speedy effect. Convinced that nothing could accelerate a peace so much as carrying on the war with the greatest energy and vigour, his majesty further stated, that he was making the greatest exertions for maintaining and improving our naval superiority, and for carrying on vigorous operations in the West Indies. He also informed the two houses, that he had concluded engagements of defensive alliance with the two imperial courts, and ratified a treaty of commerce with the United States of America.

The opening of this session was distinguished by a scandalous outrage committed on the person of his majesty by the populace, as he was going in procession to the house of peers. Besides other rude marks of popular phrensy, when his majesty had arrived at the narrow part of Palace-yard, something was discharged against the carriage with the velocity of a bullet. As soon as his majesty had retired from the house of lords, evidence was called to their lordship's bar on this affair, which evidence was also transmitted to the commons. A royal proclamation was soon after issued, offering a reward of one thousand pounds for the apprehension of any of the persons concerned in the outrage upon his majesty, but it produced no effect. One Kidd Wake was taken up for hissing and hooting the king, and afterwards indicted for a misdemeanor, and sentenced to solitary confinement in Gloucester jail for five years.

The sentiments of the ministry and of the majority of the people on this outrage may be gathered from a proclamation which was issued on the fourth of November, and laid before the house of lords. It stated that various large meetings of the people had been held lately, particularly one in the fields near Copenhagen-house, in the vicinity of the metropolis, the very day before that on which the parliament met, at which several violent, inflammatory, and seditious speeches had been uttered by divers persons, tending to produce tumult, riot, and confusion; and in consequence of those meetings, a violent and unwarrantable attack had been made

upon the person of his majesty. The proclamation, therefore, commanded all magistrates, &c. on the intension of any such meeting hereafter to be held, coming to their knowledge, that they should immediately attend the place where such meeting was designed to be held, and use all lawful means to prevent the same from being held, and to disperse the people, &c.

But as this was merely recommending the use of means already in the hands of the magistrates, and which might prove too weak to suit the exigencies of the case, two bills were introduced into the house, the one for the better security of his majesty's person and government, and the other for the more effectual prevention of seditious meetings and assemblies. Although there was no question as to the propriety of securing his majesty's person from insult, the principle of the last of these bills excited much opposition, particularly without doors. Meetings were held in all parts of the kingdom to consider the subject; addresses and petitions were presented to the crown and parliament, conveying the sentiments of such meetings. The number of petitions, or addresses, in favour of the two bills was sixty-five, and the number of signatures, as far as stated on presentation, twenty-nine thousand nine hundred and twenty-two; but the number of petitions against them was ninety-four, and the signatures one hundred and thirty-one thousand two hundred and eighty-four. In parliament, however, the majorities in favour of these bills were as great as they had usually been in all questions of importance since the commencement of the war.

The whole of the force employed in the service of the year was stated by the secretary at war, to amount to 207,000 men. The amount of the supply was stated by the chancellor of the exchequer at 27,662,082*l.*; a loan was negotiated of eighteen millions, and new taxes were laid upon property descending to collateral heirs, also upon pleasure and labour-horses, and printed cottons; and alterations were made in other branches of the revenue, the whole of which was estimated at 1,123,000*l.*

On the eighth of December, an important message was communicated to the parliament, in which his majesty acquainted them, that the crisis that was depending at the commencement of the present session had led to such an

order of things in France, as would induce his majesty (conformably to the sentiments he had already declared) to meet any disposition to negotiate on the part of the enemy, with an earnest desire to give it the fullest and speediest effect, and to conclude a treaty of general peace, whenever it could be effected on just and suitable terms for himself and his allies. On this message, however, no proceeding, was at present founded.

In the month of February, when a motion was made for peace, by a member in the opposition, the minister assured the house that the interval of the Christmas recess had not been misapplied, and that on the contrary he and his colleagues had pursued all possible means to open every avenue to negotiation. Matters were in train to meet any overture which the French might offer, and that, if necessary, he was ready to make the first opening.

On the eighteenth of April, the second budget was presented to parliament by Mr. Pitt, who observed, that when he presented the last, he proposed to raise 135,000*l.* by a tax upon printed cottons; but since that time he deemed it advisable to relinquish it, and substitute new taxes in its place; these were a tax upon dogs, hats, and an additional duty on wine, calculated in all at 740,000*l.* On the fifth of July the parliament was prorogued by his majesty with a speech, in which he expressed that the happiest effects had been experienced from the provisions they had made for repressing civil tumult and sedition, and for restraining the progress of principles subversive to all established governments, and that he should ever reflect with heartfelt satisfaction on the uniform wisdom, temper, and firmness, which had appeared in all their proceedings since he first met them in that place, and that they had omitted no opportunity to prove their just anxiety for the re-establishment of general peace, on secure and honourable terms. Next day, a proclamation was published for dissolving the parliament, and calling a new one.

During this session an attempt was made to sound the inclinations of the French directory as to peace. On the 8th of March, a note was transmitted to Mr. Barthelemy, ambassador of the French republic to the Helvetic body, from the British cabinet, through the hands of Mr. Wickham, requesting that he would transmit in writing his answer to three

A. D.  
1796.

interrogatories: "Whether there was a disposition in France to open a general negotiation for the establishment of a general peace upon just and equitable terms, by sending, for that purpose, ministers to a congress, at a place which might be afterwards agreed upon? Whether there was a disposition to communicate the general grounds of a pacification, such as France would be willing to propose, in order that his majesty and his allies might in concert examine thereupon, whether they were such as might serve as the foundation of a negotiation for peace? or, Whether there was a desire to propose any other way whatever, for arriving at the same end, that of a general pacification?" M. Barthelemi, in answer to this note, informed Mr. Wickham, that he had transmitted his note to the executive directory, who had signified to him, that they ardently desired to procure for the French republic a just, honourable, and solid peace; and that the step taken by Mr. Wickham would have afforded to the directory real satisfaction, if the declaration itself, which that minister makes, of his not having any order or power to negotiate, did not give room to doubt of the sincerity of the pacific intentions of his court. They declare further, that, charged by the constitution with the execution of the laws, they cannot make or listen to any proposal that would be contrary to them. The constitutional act does not permit the directory to consent to any alienation of that, which, according to the existing laws, constitutes the territory of the republic. Here this negotiation, if it may be so called, ended, the British minister declaring, in a note published April 10, that as the directory had avowed the inadmissible pretension of appropriating to France all that the laws actually existing there may have comprised under the denomination of the French territory, and that no proposal contrary to it will be made, or even listened to, nothing is left for the king, but to prosecute a war equally just and necessary.

The force of this country since the change in the posture of affairs on the continent, was necessarily directed to the foreign possessions of the enemy, or to the destruction of their naval power. With the former intention an armament was fitted out at Madras against the Dutch settlements on the Molucca islands, and on the appearance of this force at Amboyna, the Dutch governor and council surrendered the

island and its dependencies by capitulation. The island of Banda surrendered in like manner soon after, and in both those places considerable treasure and valuable goods fell into the hands of the captors. The British forces also took possession of the Dutch settlements at Demerary and Issequibo, in South America, with the neighbouring colony of Berbice. Nor were the Dutch less unfortunate in the fate of their navy. In the month of August, a fleet, consisting of three sail of the line, five frigates and sloops, with a store ship, having entered Saldana bay with a view to attack the Cape of Good Hope, were summoned to strike to the British fleet, of superior force, which then came up, commanded by sir George Keith Elphinstone. Resistance would have been in vain had it been attempted; the whole were consequently captured, the Dutch commander charging the disaster to the disaffection of his seamen. In some lesser actions, various other vessels were taken in the course of this year.

On the other hand the French opened the campaign on the continent, on the side of Italy, with the most brilliant prospects. Their army here was commanded by a young officer of the name of Buonaparte, a Corsican by birth, who soon signalized himself, and is accounted the most successful general of his day. To detail the various engagements between the French and Austrians, and the French and Italian states in this one campaign, which lasted almost without intermission until the month of April, 1797, would alone require a volume far exceeding the limits of the present history. This campaign did not end until the French were almost at the gates of Vienna; and while all or most of the petty princes of Germany had sued for peace, the French had overran the greatest part of the states of Italy, compelling each to receive what terms their general chose to dictate. But these victories were not merely followed by the humiliation of the vanquished. Peace with the French was the prelude to revolutions, which in one shape or other overturned all the ancient establishments of Italy, particularly the Papedom, in the room of which various republics were formed. These successes having given the enemy a superiority in the Mediterranean, the English viceroy at Corsica found it necessary to withdraw his troops from that island, and the government lately established was consequently overthrown.



A petty war between the English in Jamaica and the Maroons, descendants of the Spanish slaves, who refused to submit when the English took this island, and lived in a kind of independent state, had been carried on since the end of 1795, and in March, 1796, was concluded by the entire conquest of the Maroons, though not till after twenty battles, in which they displayed considerable prowess and fierceness. It was supposed they had been incited by the French, who also raised disturbances in Dominica, Grenada, and St. Vincent's, which were soon quelled. But the most remarkable attempt of the French was directed to the sister kingdom of Ireland, where they were instructed to expect assistance from a spirit of sedition and disaffection that had manifested itself in various parts of that country. On the 26th of December, about seven sail of French ships, some of them of the line, made their appearance in Bantry Bay, but were prevented from landing by the tempestuous weather. By accident, a lieutenant and a few other men were driven on shore in a boat, and made prisoners. By their account, it appeared that an armament which had been preparing for some time at Brest, was intended for the invasion of Ireland, that the fleet consisted of seventeen sail of the line, with upwards of thirty frigates and transports, in three divisions, commanded by admiral de Galles, and that they had troops on board, from twenty to twenty-five thousand in number, under the command of general Hoche. This fleet, however, was driven away by the tempest, and returned to Brest and Rochelle, with the loss of a frigate captured by the English, and two seventy-four gun ships which ran on shore near Brest.

The new parliament was assembled on the 28th of September, and Mr. Addington, the former speaker, having been unanimously re-elected, his majesty addressed both houses in a speech from the throne, in which he assured them, that it gave him peculiar satisfaction to recur to their advice, after the recent opportunity which had been given of collecting the sense of the people, engaged in an arduous contest for the preservation of all that was most dear; that he had exerted every endeavour to set on foot a negotiation to restore peace to Europe; that the steps he had taken for that purpose had at last opened the way to an immediate and direct negotiation; that he should immediately send a

person to Paris with full powers to treat for peace : that the enemy had manifested an intention of attempting a descent upon these kingdoms ; that, in reviewing the events of the year they must have observed, that by the skill and exertions of the navy, our extensive and increasing commerce had been protected almost beyond example, while the fleets of the enemy were blocked up in their own ports ; that the operations in the East and West Indies had been both honourable and advantageous to the nation. Notice also was taken of the temporary success of the Austrian arms at the beginning of the campaign, and of the conduct of Spain which had been induced by the French to declare war against this country.

In consequence of the intention of the enemy to invade Great Britain or Ireland, the minister proposed a very considerable augmentation of our forces for internal defence, by raising fifteen thousand men to be divided between the army and navy ; by a supplemental militia, consisting of sixty thousand, a body of irregular cavalry, about twenty thousand, and a corps of seven hundred men expert in the use of fire-arms, consisting of gamekeepers, in all one hundred and two thousand men. When the house went into a committee of supply, a few days after this, the secretary at war stated the whole force of this country at home and abroad to amount to one hundred and ninety-five thousand six hundred and seventy-four men. In December the minister calculated the whole supplies of the year at 27,647,000*l.* and the ways and means at 27,945,000*l.* leaving a surplus of 298,000*l.* A sum of 2,110,000*l.* however, remained to be raised by new taxes, which were laid on tea, coffee, auctions, bricks, spirits, Scotch stills, certain customs, assessed taxes, stamp-duty, and some other articles, which were afterwards abandoned as oppressive or unproductive.

The principal business which engaged the attention of parliament before the recess, related to the negotiation for peace with France, of which it will now be necessary to give a succinct account. Lord Malmesbury, who was appointed by the British government on this important mission, left London on the 15th of October. On the 24th he presented to M. de la Croix, the negotiator on the part of the French Republic, a memorial pressing the establishment of a general principle, as a basis for definitive arrangements. In the

first conference after the delivery of this memorial, it was demanded of the British negotiator, whether he was furnished with powers and instructions from the other belligerent powers to negotiate in their name? His lordship answered in the negative; but added, that when the directory should have explained themselves relative to the principle laid down in his memorial, he would despatch couriers to instruct the different courts in the state of the negotiation, and to receive their orders. The English ambassador was then asked, whether he could not at least specify the principle of retrocessions which concerned the French Republic and Great Britain? His lordship replied, that after the directory should have explained itself, he would likewise send couriers for instructions upon this point. All this the directory chose to consider as dilatory, and expressed their belief that the British government meant, by the present propositions, only a renewal, under a more amicable form, of Mr. Wickham's proposals last year; they also disagreed with the memorial respecting the subject of the basis of negotiation, which ought not to relate to the principle of cession, but to the common necessity of a just and solid peace; nevertheless, they would not reject any means of reconciliation; and intimated, that as soon as lord Malmesbury should produce sufficient powers from the allies of Great Britain to stipulate for their respective interests, they would give a speedy answer to the propositions which might be submitted to them.

On the 12th of November, lord Malmesbury having received some further instructions from his court, presented another note to M. de la Croix, importing, that with regard to the injurious and offensive insinuations contained in the last answer of the directory, the king had thought it far beneath his dignity to allow any reply whatever to be returned on his part. M. de la Croix returned, in the name of the directory, an abrupt answer the same day, demanding that the English ambassador would point out directly the objects of reciprocal compensation which he had to propose; and reminded him, that the breaking off of the armistice by the emperor and king was no sign of a disposition in him to conclude a peace upon equitable terms. After some further correspondence, the British plenipotentiary delivered to M. de la Croix, on the 17th of December, a confidential me-

morial, containing the principal objects of restitution, compensation, and reciprocal arrangements. These were, First, his Britannic majesty demands the restitution to his majesty the emperor and king, of all his dominions, on the footing of the *status ante bellum*: 2. The establishment of peace between the germanic empire and France, conformable to the general safety of Europe. 3. The evacuation of Italy by the French troops, with an engagement not to interfere with the internal affairs of that country, which should be established, as far as possible, upon the footing of the *status ante bellum*. Secondly, with regard to the other allies of his Britannic majesty, he demanded that there should be reserved to her majesty the empress of all the Russias, a full and unlimited power of taking part in this negotiation whenever she might think fit, or of acceding to the definitive treaty, and thereby returning to a state of peace with France. Thirdly, his Britannic majesty demanded, that the queen of Portugal might be comprehended in this negotiation, and might return to a state of peace with France without any cession or burdensome conditions on either side. Fourthly, on these conditions his majesty offered to France the entire and unreserved restitution of all the conquests which he had made on that power in the East and West Indies. His majesty offered in like manner, the restitution of the islands of St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and of the fishery of Newfoundland, on the footing of *status ante bellum*. But if, in addition to this, his majesty were to waive the right given to him by the treaty of Utrecht, of opposing the cession of the Spanish port of St. Domingo to France, he would then demand, in return, a compensation which might secure, in some degree, the maintenance of the balance of the respective possessions in that part of the world. Fifthly, in all the cases of cession or restitution, which might come in question in this negotiation, there was to be granted on each side, to all individuals, the most unlimited right to withdraw, with their families and their property, and to sell their land and other immovable possessions; and adequate arrangements were also to be made, in the course of the negotiation, for the removal of all sequestrations, and for the satisfaction of the just claims which individuals of either side might have to make upon either government.

Another confidential memorial was then given, in which, with respect to Holland, it is asserted, that his Britannic majesty and his allies find themselves too nearly interested in the political situation of these provinces, to be able to consent in their favour to the re-establishment of the *status ante bellum* with regard to territorial possessions, unless France could, on her part, reinstate them in all respects in the same political situation in which they stood before the war. And with respect to Spain, that if the catholic king should desire to be comprehended in this negotiation, or to be allowed to accede to the definitive treaty, this would meet with no obstacle on the part of his majesty.

The purport of the French negotiator's observations on these conditions was, that the first memorial appeared to him to be liable to insurmountable objections ; that it seemed to him to require much more than it conceded, and, in the event, not to leave France in a situation of proportionate greatness to the other powers of Europe. He said the act of their constitution, according to the manner in which it was interpreted by the best publicists, made it impossible to do what the memorial required. The Austrian Netherlands were annexed to France ; they could not be disposed of without throwing the nation into all the confusion which must follow a convocation of the primary assemblies. Lord Malmesbury said, that by the treaties existing between his Britannic majesty and the emperor, the two contracting parties reciprocally promise not to lay down their arms without the restitution of all the dominions and territories which may have belonged to either of them before the war. To this M. de la Croix replied, that the present government would be reprehensible in the extreme, and deserve impeachment, if they ever suffered the Netherlands to be restored : that Russia, Austria, and Prussia had, by the partition of Poland, increased their power in a most formidable degree ; that England, by her conquests, had redoubled her strength, and was enabled by her Indian empire alone, to subsidize all the powers of Europe against France ; and that her monopoly of trade had put her in possession of a fund of inexhaustible wealth.

In the course of this conversation, lord Malmesbury informed the French minister, that he must not harbour any expectation that his majesty would relax, or ever consent to

see the Netherlands remain a part of France. The day after this conversation, lord Malmesbury received a note from the Directory, through the hands of M. de la Croix, desiring him to sign the confidential note, which had been sent without a signature, and to deliver, within twenty-four hours his *ultimatum*, signed by him. His lordship having complied with the former request, received on the 19th of December, a note from the Directory informing him, in answer to his two notes of the 17th and 18th of December, that the French Executive Directory will listen, to no proposals contrary to the constitution, to the laws, and to the treaties which bind the republic. His lordship was also ordered to depart from Paris in eight and forty hours.

In consequence of his hasty termination of an embassy on which the public expectation had been anxiously fixed, a message was delivered to the house of commons from his majesty, stating, that his majesty, with great concern, acquainted the commons that his earnest endeavours to effect the restoration of peace had been unhappily frustrated, and that the negotiation in which he had been engaged had been abruptly broken off by the peremptory refusal of the French government to treat, except upon a basis evidently inadmissible, and by their having, in consequence required his majesty's plenipotentiary to quit Paris. On the 30th of December this message was taken into consideration, and although some difference of opinion seemed to prevail as to the importance of the Netherlands as a *sine qua non*, only thirty-seven members voted against the opinion of his majesty's ministers on the whole of the negotiation.

The attention of parliament soon after its reassembling, was called to an affair of great national importance. On the 26th of February, a resolution was adopted by the privy-council, prohibiting the directors of the Bank from issuing any cash, till the sense of the legislature should have been taken with regard to the extraordinary state of affairs. The cause of this order was, that the frequent exportation of bullion and cash, had concurred with the practice of hoarding, promoted by the late alarms, to render coin extremely scarce; and so great a demand for it arose in different parts of the country, that the pecuniary exchange of the notes of the Bank, became a matter of extreme difficulty and inconvenience. On the

A. D.  
1797:

28th, the house of commons appointed a committee for examining the affairs of the Bank, who reported a very favourable view of their finances, but the prohibition of payment in cash was ordered to be continued for a certain time. The Bank were, however, empowered to issue notes of two pounds and one pound, and a great quantity of dollars were stamped and issued, which relieved the public considerably. In time, the alarm occasioned by these measures gradually wore off, and the inconvenience from want of cash began to be felt less and less, as public confidence returned.

On the 26th of April, a second budget was opened by the chancellor of the exchequer, who intimated that the progressive demands of the year might be expected to exceed fifteen millions, exclusive of the former supplies of the session. The loan for which he had agreed was fourteen millions and a half, out of which a million and a half would be charged to Ireland; but stipulations had been made for an ulterior loan of above three millions and a half, if it should be thought expedient to gratify the emperor with further advances. The new taxes to raise the sum of 1,284,000*l.* were additional stamps on agreements, copies of deeds, private transfers of property, newspapers, plate, bills of exchange, and some others which were afterwards abandoned for taxes on horses, coals, pepper, clocks and watches, and Scotch spirits. The session closed on the 20th of July. Much of the latter part of it was taken up in debates on the removal of ministers, and on schemes for quelling a most dangerous mutiny in the navy, which was happily effected, and the principal agents of it punished with death.

While the nation at large, and the city of London in particular, were in a state of alarm, owing to the stoppage of payment at the Bank, an event happened which diverted public attention to a more pleasing object. This was the glorious victory achieved by sir John Jervis. This able officer had cruised for some time in expectation of meeting with the Spanish fleet; and he was at length apprized by his scouts, that the enemy had been discerned at the distance of only four leagues. Notwithstanding that his fleet consisted of only fifteen sail of the line, and that of the enemy apparently amounted to no less than twenty-five, he

determined to engage them. Having arranged his ships in the most compact order, he sailed with such expedition, that he reached the Spanish fleet before it was disposed with due regularity or connexion. He had so strong a confidence in the valour and discipline of his men, that he did not scruple to depart from the ordinary system, as a considerable degree of enterprise seemed requisite at the commencement of a war with the Spaniards. He therefore passed through their fleet, in a line rapidly formed, and by tacking, separated one third of it from the main body. After a conflict which continued about five hours, he defeated the enemy, and captured four ships, namely, two of 112 guns, one of 84, and one of 74. It was then found that the whole Spanish fleet consisted of twenty-seven sail of the line. In this engagement, which took place near Cape St. Vincent on the 14th of February, 300 men were killed or wounded on the part of the victors; but in the ships which were taken, the list of those who lost their lives, or were wounded, amounted, according to the account given by admiral Jervis, to 603. As a reward for this gallant action, the honours of the peerage were conferred upon the commander by the title of earl St. Vincent, lord Jervis.

During the summer, it has already been noticed, that a very dangerous mutiny broke out in the navy at Portsmouth, which, after being apparently quelled, broke out a second time with more alarming symptoms, and continued with great obstinacy for some weeks, when the mutineers became divided among themselves, and the majority returned to their duty after giving up the ringleaders.

During the last session of parliament, it was resolved that a plenipotentiary should be sent to France for a renewal of negotiation. A letter from lord Grenville, proposing a treaty, was politely answered by the French minister, and the scene of conference was fixed at Lisle. Accordingly lord Malmesbury was again deputed as the negotiator on the part of Great Britain, and Letourneur on the part of the French republic. The negotiation commenced in the beginning of July; but such insurmountable difficulties were created by the conduct of the ruling party in France, that lord Malmesbury returned to England, in September, without effecting the object of his mission.



The nation certainly felt this second disappointment of their hopes, but no blame was thrown upon the British ministry or their negotiator, and an event now took place, which dismissed all consideration of the treaty, and created in the minds of all men a proud exultation.

This was a naval victory more glorious than any we have yet recorded, which was gained by the British fleet, commanded by admiral Duncan, over the Dutch fleet. This latter had been long prevented from quitting the Texel, but when admiral Duncan, who commanded the British fleet on that station, had retired for the purpose of refitting, the Dutch took the opportunity of sailing out of their usual place of refuge. Captain Trollope observed their motions, and gave seasonable notice to the admiral, who hastily advanced with his fleet consisting of fourteen sail of the line, and two ships of fifty guns. De Winter, the Dutch admiral, had fifteen large ships under his command, and he prepared for the conflict with firmness and intrepidity. An engagement ensued on the 11th of October, near that part of the coast on which stands the village of Camperdown. It was the grand aim of admiral Duncan to break the line of his adversaries; and he found means to get between them and the land. The first attack was directed to their rear, and was conducted by vice-admiral Onslow, who, in the *Monarch*, distinguished himself by the valour of the charge, while the other ships of his division took a very active part. The gallant admiral, in the *Venerable*, soon made way through the line of the Dutch, and their van and centre were fiercely attacked. At length De Winter's ship was so injured as to be indefensible, and he struck his flag. In the whole, nine sail of the line and two frigates were captured by the English. In this engagement, above seven hundred and fifty men were killed or wounded in the British fleet; the loss of the vanquished was much more considerable, they having 540 killed, and 620 wounded. Nothing could exceed the national rejoicing on account of this victory. The gallant admiral was created a peer, by the title of viscount Duncan, and admiral Onslow was created a baronet. In December, a day of solemn national thanksgiving was appointed for the three great naval victories achieved by lord Howe, and admirals Jervis and Duncan;

and on that day their majesties went in procession to St. Paul's cathedral, accompanied by the members of both houses of parliament.

Notwithstanding the brilliant success of the British navy in the year 1797, the enemy did not relax from the activity necessary to present a formidable appearance. On the meeting of parliament in January, 1798, his majesty intimated that he had received intelligence of measures taken in France, apparently in pursuance of a design of attempting the invasion of these kingdoms. This communication produced the most active measures; besides a bill imposing a triple assessment of taxes, some members of parliament expressed an intention of contributing beyond the amount of the demand, and the directors of the bank were authorized to receive voluntary subscriptions, which soon amounted to a very considerable sum. His majesty subscribed 20,000*l.* and the queen 5,000*l.* and all inferior ranks vied with each other in this sacrifice at the altar of patriotism. It was also carried in parliament to call out a party of the supplementary militia, to obtain an account of the number of persons able and willing to defend their country, and to authorize his majesty to require their active service in case of emergency. This was followed, in every part of the country, by associations of reputable housekeepers and gentlemen, who enrolled themselves in volunteer corps, learned the military exercise, and were soon qualified by strict discipline, as well as firm resolution, to protect the country from internal commotions and foreign invasion. Among other subjects of finance, proposed in this session, was a plan for the redemption of the land-tax, which was carried after some ineffectual opposition.

Provision having been made for the aggregate supply for the year, the bill for suspending the *habeas-corpus* was passed, in consequence of a message from his majesty, expressing that the preparations for the embarkation of warlike stores and troops were carried on with considerable and increasing activity in the ports of France, Flanders, and Holland, and that the French were encouraged, in their scheme of invasion, by the correspondence and communication of traitorous and disaffected persons and societies in this kingdom. Several persons were accordingly apprehended on the charge of corresponding with the enemy.

The nation certainly felt this second disappointment of their hopes, but no blame was thrown upon the British ministry or their negotiator, and an event now took place, which dismissed all consideration of the treaty, and created in the minds of all men a proud exultation.

This was a naval victory more glorious than any we have yet recorded, which was gained by the British fleet, commanded by admiral Duncan, over the Dutch fleet. This latter had been long prevented from quitting the Texel, but when admiral Duncan, who commanded the British fleet on that station, had retired for the purpose of refitting, the Dutch took the opportunity of sailing out of their usual place of refuge. Captain Trollope observed their motions, and gave seasonable notice to the admiral, who hastily advanced with his fleet consisting of fourteen sail of the line, and two ships of fifty guns. De Winter, the Dutch admiral, had fifteen large ships under his command, and he prepared for the conflict with firmness and intrepidity. An engagement ensued on the 11th of October, near that part of the coast on which stands the village of Camperdown. It was the grand aim of admiral Duncan to break the line of his adversaries; and he found means to get between them and the land. The first attack was directed to their rear, and was conducted by vice-admiral Onslow, who, in the *Monarch*, distinguished himself by the valour of the charge, while the other ships of his division took a very active part. The gallant admiral, in the *Venerable*, soon made way through the line of the Dutch, and their van and centre were fiercely attacked. At length De Winter's ship was so injured as to be indefensible, and he struck his flag. In the whole, nine sail of the line and two frigates were captured by the English. In this engagement, above seven hundred and fifty men were killed or wounded in the British fleet; the loss of the vanquished was much more considerable, they having 140 killed, and 620 wounded. Nothing could exceed the national rejoicing on account of this victory. The gallant admiral was created a peer, by the title of viscount Duncan, and admiral Onslow was created a baronet. In December, a day of solemn national thanksgiving was appointed for the three great naval victories achieved by lord Howe, and admirals Jervis and Duncan;

and on that day their majesties went in procession to St. Paul's cathedral, accompanied by the members of both houses of parliament.

Notwithstanding the brilliant success of the British navy in the year 1797, the enemy did not relax from the activity necessary to present a formidable appearance. On the meeting of parliament in January, 1798, his majesty intimated that he had received intelligence of measures taken in France, apparently in pursuance of a design of attempting the invasion of these kingdoms. This communication produced the most active measures; besides a bill imposing a triple assessment of taxes, some members of parliament expressed an intention of contributing beyond the amount of the demand, and the directors of the bank were authorized to receive voluntary subscriptions, which soon amounted to a very considerable sum. His majesty subscribed 20,000*l.* and the queen 5,000*l.* and all inferior ranks vied with each other in this sacrifice at the altar of patriotism. It was also carried in parliament to call out a party of the supplementary militia, to obtain an account of the number of persons able and willing to defend their country, and to authorize his majesty to require their active service in case of emergency. This was followed, in every part of the country, by associations of reputable housekeepers and gentlemen, who enrolled themselves in volunteer corps, learned the military exercise, and were soon qualified by strict discipline, as well as firm resolution, to protect the country from internal commotions and foreign invasion. Among other subjects of finance, proposed in this session, was a plan for the redemption of the land-tax, which was carried after some ineffectual opposition.

Provision having been made for the aggregate supply for the year, the bill for suspending the *habeas-corpus* was passed, in consequence of a message from his majesty, expressing that the preparations for the embarkation of warlike stores and troops were carried on with considerable and increasing activity at the ports of France, Flanders, and Holland, and that the French were encouraged, in their scheme of invasion, by the correspondence and communication of traitorous and disaffected persons and societies in this kingdom. Several persons were accordingly apprehended on the charge of corresponding with the enemy,

particularly Arthur O'Connor, an Irish gentleman, and some others, who were afterwards tried at Maidstone and acquitted, except one O'Coigly, who was convicted and executed. The session of parliament concluded on the twenty-ninth of June.

The incidents of the war were not as yet very important. As the small islands of St. Marcou, near La Hogue, had been seized by the English, and were used as posts of observation, the French, on the seventh of May, sent a flotilla of gun-boats to dislodge them, which were repulsed with very considerable loss. On the other hand, the English were unsuccessful in an attempt to destroy the sluices and other works at Ostend. But these inferior objects soon gave way to the consideration of a dangerous rebellion which now broke out in Ireland. The disaffection among the lower classes in this country had been artfully exasperated by some men of influence and education, and their machinations were not wholly unknown to government.

They expected assistance from France: but whether that was not well concerted, or that they thought themselves strong enough to begin the attack, it is certain they resolved not to wait for the French. The twenty-third of May was the day appointed for the rebellious attack of the capital; but the strong measures adopted by government prevented its execution, and some of the leaders, among whom was lord Edward Fitzgerald, were apprehended and imprisoned. He, indeed, was so severely wounded in resisting those who came to take him into custody, as not long to survive the disappointment of his schemes. On the twenty-fourth, however, about one thousand men, armed with pikes and muskets, approached the town of Naas, and made an assault upon the king's troops, but being firmly opposed, they fled with precipitation, leaving about a hundred dead. Various engagements in different places were fought about this time, in all which the rebels were defeated, with great loss. In the mean while the marquis Cornwallis was sent over as lord-lieutenant, in the room of earl Camden. His excellency announced that a pardon would be granted for offences committed on or before a certain day, upon such terms and with such exceptions as might be compatible.

In the mean time the house of commons in Ireland, having fully developed the schemes of treason, delivered a long

report, in which it was stated, that the *Society of United Irishmen* had been formed in 1791; that from its commencement, the real purpose of those who were at the head of the institution, was to separate Ireland from Great Britain, and to subvert the established constitution; but that for some time they did not avow their real aims: that a direct communication was at length opened with the French, whose concurrence was solicited and promised; that in 1796, arms and ammunition were provided by the party, and the most active system of terror was put in operation against magistrates, jurors; and all who ventured to support the laws: that the orders for disarming the malcontents, and other measures of government, checked for a time the outrages of faction: but that the spirit of sedition and treason revived before the close of 1797; that Arthur O'Connor, who had been acquitted at Maidstone, and lord Edward Fitzgerald were among the leaders of the party: that the French were repeatedly urged to send succours; and that the conspirators would not at last have rebelled without such aid, if the vigorous measures of the court had not rendered it necessary for them to rise at once, or to abandon their purpose. Such is the outline of this conspiracy, in which it is evident that the artifices of a few leaders had deluded the mass of people into a belief that they were acting for the cause of their interest and liberties.

The populace were rapidly submitting to the terms of pardon offered, when about one thousand French disembarked at Killala, on the 12th of August. Very few of the natives at first joined this body: and the lord lieutenant marched in person with a considerable army to prevent an augmentation of their numbers. Before his excellency appeared, they attacked the king's troops under general Lake, at Castlebar, and compelled him to retire, as he was in an unprepared state; on the 8th of September, however, he encountered the enemy at Ballinamuck, and after a short resistance they surrendered.

This accelerated the submission of the greater part of the United Irishmen, but occasional depredations and outrages were still committed in different quarters. On the 16th of December, a French brig made a descent on the coast of Donegal, but hearing of the late defeat, retired. A fresh invasion, however, being meditated by the enemy, every

precaution became necessary at sea. On the eleventh of October, sir J. B. Warren discovered some French ships near the Irish coast, and brought them to action next morning. They consisted of the *Hoche*, a ship of the line, and eight frigates: the *Hoche* was captured, and the frigates attempted to sail away, but three of them were taken the same day, and three afterwards: these vessels contained a considerable number of soldiers, and some of the Irish malcontents; among the latter was Theobald Wolfe Tone, a man of some talents, who had acted as a negotiator in Paris, and who was now condemned to death, but prevented a public execution by suicide.

Convinced of their inability to make a successful descent upon the British islands, the French government projected the reduction of Egypt, designing, at some future opportunity, to penetrate into India, either by the way of the Red Sea, or by the Persian Gulf. Accordingly a considerable expedition sailed from Toulon, in May, under the command of general Bonaparte, and admiral Brueys. On the 9th of June they appeared before Malta, and made themselves masters of that island; and on the 1st of July their military forces were debarked at Alexandria. A series of successful engagements with the natives and Turks, elated the spirits of the invaders; but while they contemplated the subjugation of Egypt as inevitable, a most unexpected reverse of fortune awaited them. On the 1st of August the British admiral Nelson appeared off the mouth of the Nile, and discovered the French fleet lying at anchor in the bay of Aboukir. Admiral Bruey's ship had one hundred and twenty guns, and above one thousand men: three had eighty guns each, and nine seventy-four.

They were drawn up near the shore, in a compact and strong line of battle, flanked by four frigates, and many gunboats, and protected in the van by a battery, planted on a small island. The English admiral was not deterred by this appearance from making the attack. He had as many ships of the line as the French admiral, but he strengthened the line by the introduction of a ship of fifty guns: but in approaching the enemy, he was deprived of the assistance of the *Culloden*, of seventy-four, as it struck upon a shoal, from which it could not be extricated before the next morning.

Admiral Nelson was very desirous of breaking the line of the French, and surrounding a part of their fleet; and he executed his purpose with great ability and courage. At sunset the engagement commenced: and both parties fought with great spirit. While the victory was yet undecided, admiral Brueys received two wounds: and having changed his situation, he was exposed to a fresh shot by which he was killed. When the action had continued for two hours, two of the French ships were taken; a third struck soon after, and the whole van was in the power of the English, who eagerly proceeded to a completion of their victory. *L'Orient*, the particular ship of the French commander, was warmly engaged with several of the hostile vessels, when an explosion indicated the danger of a conflagration, and soon after she blew up, a small number only of the crew escaping. The engagement was prosecuted at intervals till daybreak; and only two of the French ships of the line, and two frigates escaped. The loss in the British fleet amounted to sixteen officers, and two hundred and two seamen and marines killed, and six hundred and seventy-seven wounded. That of the French is supposed to have amounted to a much greater number. After this victory, admiral Nelson left part of his fleet to blockade the port of Alexandria, where Bonaparte had disembarked his troops; and sailed towards Sicily.

The intelligence of this glorious and important victory, diffused extraordinary joy throughout every part of the British dominions. Numerous congratulations were presented to his majesty, the admiral was honoured with a peerage, by the title of lord Nelson of the Nile, and a day was appropriated for a solemn thanksgiving. This victory, while it gave fresh splendour to the unexampled series of our naval triumphs, promised in its consequences, the most important effects on the general state of affairs, and, as mentioned in the royal speech, afforded an opening, which, if improved by suitable exertions on the part of other powers, might lead to the general deliverance of Europe from the French yoke. The emperor of Russia was now induced to engage in the contest; the Turks, and the king of Naples likewise joined the confederacy; and several victories were obtained over the French, both in Italy and on the banks of the Rhine. The British cabinet, considering this a favourable



opportunity for reinstating the prince of Orange, sent a powerful armament to Holland, under the command of the duke of York, and admiral Mitchell. The Dutch fleet in the Texel, consisting of eight vessels, surrendered to the British admiral, and the duke obtained some victories as he proceeded into the country; but as the Dutch were unwilling to co-operate, and as the French had received considerable reinforcements, it became necessary to fall back, and re-embark the troops for England.

While such was the state of affairs in Europe, Bonaparte arrived in France, after making his escape from Egypt in a small vessel, without the knowledge of more than one person in his army. Scarcely had he, to the astonishment of all France, landed on its shores, than he found the French, whose internal affairs had been for some time wretchedly conducted, ripe for another revolution. This he speedily effected, by the assistance of some troops, and his personal influence, and established a new constitution, placing himself at the head of it, in quality of chief consul. His first act of authority was to enter into a correspondence with the sovereigns at war with France, proposing a negotiation for peace. The British ministry, after diverting this correspondence from his majesty personally, into its proper channel, rejected his proposals, from a doubt of his sincerity or the stability of his new government. The other powers were equally indisposed to treat with him. On this, in the commencement of 1800, the chief consul prepared for a renewal of the war; orders were given for new levies to recruit the weakened armies, and loans were negotiated both in France and Holland. The campaign was opened in April, with considerable success on the part of the Austrians in Italy.

On the Rhine, the campaign was opened near the close of April, and at first was unfavourable to the French arms. A battle was fought on the 5th of May, between the Austrian general, Kray, and the French general, Moreau, which was contended with great spirit; the French are said to have lost the greatest number of men. This is usually called the battle of Moskirch. At length Bonaparte headed in person the army of reserve, and their progress was rapid and decisive. The cities of Milan, Pavia, &c. were again retaken, and an important victory was gained on the 9th of June, over the Austrians near Casteggio. But the most decisive of all, usually

termed the battle of Marengo, was fought on the 14th of Juno, and after many vicissitudes, the Austrians being at one time victorious, ended in the defeat of the latter, with prodigious loss. The French reported that three thousand were killed, five thousand wounded, and seven thousand taken prisoners. The Imperial Gazette, however, reckons the killed, wounded, and prisoners, at nine thousand and sixty-nine, of which number five thousand two hundred and seventy-four were captives.

The consequences of this victory were highly important to the French, and, joined to their successes in other quarters, led to an armistice, and this to a negotiation, signed by the count St. Julien on the part of the emperor, but did not produce a decisive treaty. The total defection, however, of the emperor of Russia from the confederacy, and other unfavourable circumstances, inclined the court of Vienna to another armistice, the terms of which were afterwards arranged.

We have already mentioned, that the design of the French in their expedition to Egypt, was to open a communication, by which they might hereafter co-operate with the enemies of Great Britain in India. Nearly about the time, however, that they had effected their purpose in landing in Egypt, the principal foe of the British in India, Tippoo Saib, was doomed to lose his life and dominions, in a short, but successful war which the English were compelled to declare against him. The active operations of this war were conducted by general Harris, who, besieged and took Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo's dominions. Among the slain was found the body of the tyrant, near one of the gates, among a heap of his lifeless subjects.

The union of Great Britain with Ireland had been for some time a favourite object with the British ministry; and on the 21st of April, an act was passed fixing the commencement of that union for the first day of the nineteenth century; and the parliament of the united kingdom was summoned to meet on the 22nd day of January, 1801. Proclamations were also issued respecting the alterations to take place in his majesty's titles, arms, flags, &c.

A change in the ministry now took place, supposed to have principally resulted from a difference of opinion in the cabinet, on the question of catholic emancipation in Ireland.

Mr. Pitt and his friends resigned their high situations, after some delay, principally occasioned by a temporary indisposition with which his majesty was visited, and they were succeeded by Mr. Addington, formerly speaker of the house of commons, as first lord of the treasury, and chancellor of the exchequer; by lords Hawkesbury and Pelham, as secretaries of state, and lord Eldon, late chief justice of the common pleas, as lord high chancellor.

England was placed, at this time, in a situation which required wisdom and promptitude in acting. The northern powers, instigated by Paul, emperor of Russia, had entered into an hostile confederacy, and were, in a considerable measure, become the allies of France. An armament was, therefore, fitted out in the British ports, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, &c. under the command of sir Hyde Parker and lord Nelson. This fleet sailed from Yarmouth on the 12th of March, and triumphantly passed the Sound, which had always been deemed impossible, and reached the capital of Denmark. The Danes had made considerable preparations. The attack, however, was instantly made by the English fleet, and after a very severe engagement, lord Nelson offered a cessation of arms, which the Danes agreed to; they had lost eighteen ships, and Copenhagen was in the utmost danger. An armistice, therefore, was now concluded, and the death of the emperor Paul completely dissolved the confederacy.

In Egypt a new turn had been given to the war. A considerable force, despatched from Great Britain, under the command of sir Ralph Abercrombie, effected a landing on the 7th of March, notwithstanding the greatest obstacles, and on the 13th, gave battle to a part of the French army near Alexandria, and completely defeated them. The English followed up their success by a second battle on the 21st of March, about four miles from Alexandria, in which they were likewise completely successful, but with the loss, almost irreparable, of their brave commander, who died on the 25th, of a wound he received in this engagement. These actions may be considered as decisive of the fate of Egypt. The command now devolved upon general Hutchinson, who proceeded towards Alexandria, where the principal force of the enemy was yet concentrated. The castle of Rosetta and town was taken, and the French garrison made but a

### GEORGE III.

feeble resistance. A force was also detached to Cairo, ready in May. On the 2nd of this month general Hutchinson, with 4000 British, and an equal number of Turks, attacked the French near Rhamanich, and compelled them to retreat to Cairo. On the 22nd of June, the garrison of this place, exceeding 5000 men, capitulated upon terms, and the final conquest of Egypt was completed by an inferior English force, with a bravery unparalleled in the history of this war.

The intelligence of the conclusion of this brilliant campaign was received in England on the same day that the preliminaries of peace were signed by M. Otob, on the part of the French republic, and lord Hawkesbury on the part of his Britannic majesty. This negotiation had been carried on for some months, but with impenetrable secrecy.

By the definitive treaty, which was concluded at Amiens, on the 27th of March, 1802, Great Britain agreed to the restoration of all her conquests, the island of Trinidad, and the Dutch possessions of Ceylon excepted. The Cape of Good Hope was to remain a free port to all the contracting parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages. The island of Malta was to be evacuated by the British troops, and restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem. Egypt was restored to the Ottoman Porte. The territory of Portugal was to be maintained in its integrity; and the French troops were to evacuate the territory of Rome and Naples. The republic of the Seven Islands was recognised by France: and the fishery of Newfoundland was established on its former footing.

With regard to the public at large, the peace unquestionably afforded the highest satisfaction. If its terms were not quite so favourable as some predicted, they were at least accommodated to existing circumstances, and they afforded a respite from that enormous load of expenditure which the nature of the war had rendered necessary, while we had the satisfaction to reflect, that throughout a struggle of ten years, with the common enemy of Europe and of constituted authorities, we had preserved our empire, our laws, our constitution, and our religion, from the violence of revolutionary powers, and at the same time saw our commerce advance, and our commercial credit unimpaired.

Yet amidst the satisfaction so generally expressed on this

occasion, it was not long before symptoms of mutual jealousy appeared between the governments of Great Britain and France.

On the part of the British, the hostility of Bonaparte to a commercial treaty, the plunder of Germany, the reduction of Switzerland, and the demands imperiously made for restraining the liberty of the press in England, were considered as obviously indicative of the dangerous ambition of the French consul; while our refusal to give up Malta, and an attempt to interfere in the concerns of Switzerland, were regarded by France, as acts of aggression on the part of Great Britain.

The ministry of this country, however, evinced no forwardness to complain, or to give Bonaparte reason to think them inclined to oppose him by any kind of hostility. Some increase in the naval and military establishments indeed were made, but nothing hostile appeared on our side before the month of March, 1803, when the intentions of the enemy could no longer be mistaken, and when the points in dispute had been fully canvassed between the first consul and the British ambassador.

In the meantime an event occurred which interested the country very much in its own preservation. It was generally supposed, that although the seditious societies which assembled in 1794-5, had become less open and less bold in their proceedings, in consequence of the laws enacted at that period, and of the spirit of the people at large having been decidedly avowed against their machinations, yet it was suspected that the spirit of treason was by no means entirely suppressed, and that the disaffected party continued to hold a secret correspondence with the enemies of their country. At the head of a party of this kind was colonel Despard, a man who had once performed able services for his country, but either his ambition had been ungratified, or his mind had been corrupted by the worst principles of the French revolution. Certain it was, that as far back as 1797, government were apprized of his treasonable practices, and he was imprisoned during the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, in the house of correction in Spa-Fields; but on his being liberated in 1802 he entered into a more atrocious conspiracy than had yet been heard of: his plan was to corrupt the principles of the soldiers, and particularly of his majesty's guards: a

society was formed of about thirty obscure individuals, whose numbers, however, it was trusted would soon be increased: their principal object was the murder of the king at the opening of parliament, while another party was to seize the Tower and the Bank, and to stop the mail-coaches, which last measure was to be a signal to the disaffected in the country to march to their assistance. Of this plot government were aware, but wisely allowed it to ripen, and evince the designs and guilt of the conspirators before they interfered. Accordingly on November 16, 1802, about thirty of the conspirators were arrested at the Oakley-Arms, in South Lambeth, and committed to prison. Their trials came on in February following, when Despard and five others, were convicted upon the clearest evidence, and were executed on the 21st of that month, on a platform erected on the top of the new gaol, in Southwark.

The ambition of the first consul of France, and the reluctance he manifested with respect to commercial relations with this country, became every day more apparent, as well as an inclination to treat Great Britain as a conquered nation. This he evinced by the unjustifiable violence offered to British property in France, and the denial of justice to British subjects in the French courts; he even refused to restore the vessels captured in India by the French, after the signature of the preliminaries was known to both nations. His most distant, though not less obvious designs, appeared likewise in his sending a number of persons to Great Britain and Ireland, under the plausible name of commercial commissioners, but who were in fact all military officers, who employed themselves in obtaining such information as could be serviceable only in case of an invasion.

The possession of Malta, however, was laid hold of by the first consul as the chief object in dispute, and a peremptory demand was made for its evacuation. This brought on a long and protracted negotiation between the French and English courts, which had from the beginning such an aspect, that on the 8th of March, 1803, his majesty sent a message to both houses of parliament, stating, that as very considerable military preparations were carrying on in the ports of France and Holland, he had judged it expedient to adopt additional measures of precaution for the security of his dominions: that though these preparations were avow-

edly directed to colonial service, yet as discussions of great importance were then subsisting between his majesty and the French government, the result of which must at present be uncertain, his majesty was induced to make this communication to his faithful parliament, in full persuasion that, while they partook of his majesty's earnest and unvarying solicitude for the continuance of peace, he might rely with perfect confidence on their public spirit and liberality to adopt such measures as circumstances might appear to require, for supporting the honour of his crown and the essential interests of his people. Addresses were voted in both houses in consequence of this message, and a grant made of 10,000 seamen as an addition to the present number of his majesty's naval forces. On the 10th of March another message was received by the houses, which stated that his majesty had thought it necessary to exercise the powers vested in him by act of parliament for calling out and embodying forthwith the militia.

The negotiations alluded to went on for a considerable time, till all probability of agreement having vanished, lord Whitworth left Paris on the 10th of May, about which time the French ambassador, Andreossi, left London, and on the 18th the British government published a declaration of the causes of complaint which they had to allege against France, and this was soon after followed by the issuing of letters of marque and reprisal. All these proceedings received the full sanction of parliament, although not without exciting debates of considerable length and interest.

But before we detail the measures that were taken to provide for the safety of the country in this new war, it will be necessary to notice certain rebellious proceedings in Ireland, which occurred in the summer of 1803, and, according to every probable account, were excited by persons in connexion with the French government. This new conspiracy was conducted principally by Russell, Emmett, and Dowdall, men of some abilities and education, but headstrong, desperate, and grossly unprincipled. Emmett and Russell had been concerned in the rebellion of 1798, and after the war, had been allowed to transport themselves. They accordingly took refuge in France, and there appear to have brooded over their supposed wrongs, and to have contrived their scheme. They returned to Ireland in 1802, and remained

for some time concealed under fictitious names. In this disguise, however, they found some associates as desperate and unprincipled as themselves, and had the art to procure or manufacture a large quantity of pikes and other arms, at a house, in Thomas-street, Dublin. They also contrived to train their associates, in some degree, and to provide stores of arms and gunpowder in their respective habitations, all ready to be brought into general service at the appointed time. Their design was to seize the castle of Dublin, to consider the troops of the line as prisoners of war, but to massacre such of the militia or volunteers as should oppose them. A similar rising was expected in all parts of the country, the signal for which was to be the stopping of the mail-coaches. All this, however, appears to have been mere delusion for the purposes of partial mischief; a mob they might and did raise, but the spirit of the country was against them. Whether aware of this, or that they thought it necessary to perpetrate something worthy the name of treason, we know not, but they fixed on the 23rd of July as the time of general insurrection. About nine o'clock in the evening of that day, the signal was given by the firing of rockets, and the doors of their magazine were opened, when Emmett, Dowdall, and two other miscreants, Quigley and Stafford, rushed out at the head of their followers, and took their station in Thomas-street. The rebels did not exceed fifty, but as they put pikes into the hands of all the mob who were willing to join them, their number soon amounted to about five hundred; still this would have answered no general purpose, had they not been provided with an opportunity to satiate their malice by the shedding of innocent blood.

The malignity of some of the conspirators had induced them to despatch a forged summons to lord Kilwarden, the chief justice of the King's-bench, to attend a council on this fatal evening; and it was during the height of the insurrection that this amiable and venerable magistrate, accompanied by his daughter, Miss Wolfe, and his nephew, a clergyman, arrived in Thomas-street, in his way from his country house to the castle. Lord Kilwarden and Mr. Wolfe, his nephew, were inhumanly dragged from the carriage, and pierced with innumerable wounds, by the pikemen; but Miss Wolfe, by some means escaped to the castle. Colonel Brown, a brave officer, who was hurrying to join his



regiment, fell among the rebels, and was cut to pieces; and others fell a sacrifice to their fury, before the military assembled in sufficient numbers to disperse them, which was not done without considerable slaughter. Emmett, Dowdall, Quigley, and Stafford made their escape, but Emmett was soon taken, and with Russell, and some others, was afterwards tried and executed. As soon as the news of this massacre reached England, parliament found it necessary to repeal the *Hobbs-corpus* act in Ireland.

The necessity of the war had now become so apparent, that perhaps in no period of our history can we mention an occasion which discovers such unanimity in support of the nation, as appeared a few weeks after the war was finally determined on. The threatenings of France were no longer disguised; invasion and extermination of the British name and nation were the sole and immediate design they attempted to pursue. The plunder of our island was held forth as an inducement for the armies to volunteer on this service, and even plans were published of the measures intended to be taken when the designs should be accomplished.

In all this, however, the French had miscalculated their own power, and our incapacity. Great Britain was certainly unwilling to go to war, if it could have been avoided, but for that necessity she was amply prepared. So little interval had taken place since the last war, that neither her naval nor her military spirit had had leisure to subside. Accordingly, a naval force was soon provided nearly double in number and force to what we had possessed at the commencement of any former war. The militia were next embodied, and the act for raising the army of reserve, in the course of a few months, added 30,000 men to the regular force of the country. An act had likewise been past, enabling his majesty to call out the whole mass of the people fit to bear arms, in different classes, and to put a certain proportion of them into immediate training. But this act was rendered unnecessary by the voluntary zeal which blazed forth on this, as it never had done on any former occasion.

The effect of this upon the mind of the first consul of France was what might have been expected; he collected indeed three hundred thousand men on the coast, and had made great progress in preparing them for sea, but he never

made the attempt, and found it more easy to revenge himself upon the helpless and unoffending ; accordingly knowing that curiosity, and affairs of business, had induced many English gentlemen to visit France, he ordered them all to be seized as prisoners of war, and in about two months after the commencement of hostilities the French troops were ordered to overrun and plunder the defenceless state of Hanover. The object of this invasion was evidently to take revenge on his Britannic majesty, as elector of Hanover, but he heard the news with dignified composure, and immediately ordered the spirited measure of blockading the Elbe, the Weser, the ports of Genoa and Spezia, Havre, and the ports of the Seine, and the attention of government being directed to such of the enemy's possessions abroad, as were accessible, the islands of St. Lucia, Tobago, Demerara, and Essequibo, the settlement of Berbice, the island of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and some others, were captured by the British troops. Several successful attacks were made on the enemy's invading coast, particularly on the port of Granville, the town and fort of Dieppe, and Boulogne, the grand dépôt of the invading army, and many of their vessels were destroyed.

The internal government of France, during the last year, underwent a change for which the people had been artfully prepared ; the First Consul procured himself at length to be chosen chief magistrate by the title of Emperor, and the imperial dignity confirmed to him and his heirs. He afterwards bestowed the rank of princes on the collateral branches of his family, and the court was in all respects restored to its pristine splendour, and variety of ranks and orders. To all this, the people submitted not only with composure, but with their usual joy and vivacity ; no traces of the revolutionary or republican spirit were allowed to remain, and Bonaparte ruled with less control from laws of any kind, than the most despotic prince in ancient or modern times.

At home the additional supplies for carrying on the war were levied with very little disturbance or complaint, so amply were all convinced that our existence as a people depended on the aid given to government at so critical a period. An attempt was, however, made to procure a stronger administration than that which derived its name from Mr. Addington ; and a negotiation was set on foot to

procure a coalition between the Grenville party and Mr. Fox ; Mr. Pitt was also to have a share in the new arrangement, but for some reasons not explicitly avowed, this negotiation ended in Mr. Pitt's becoming prime minister, without any of the illustrious colleagues he intended as his associates. Mr. Addington resigned, and was soon after called up to the house of Peers by the title of lord Sidmouth.

About the conclusion of the year 1804, the court of Spain issued a formal declaration of war against Great Britain, in consequence of which the British council ordered reprisals and letters of marque to be granted. The conduct of the Spanish court was on this occasion considered as a matter of constraint, resulting from the fear of offending the emperor of France, who was now committing unprecedented acts of violence and outrage, and began to regard his allies as vassals bound to comply with his will in all its capricious changes, and however repugnant to their inclination or interests. In consequence of these transactions, those other powers of Europe, which had yet possessed some degree of independence, but saw no security in any species of treaty, or security which France could offer, began to increase their armies, and prepare for war. Prussia only, partly from fear, and partly from short-sighted policy, determined to preserve its neutrality, with the feeble hope that it would be respected by France, and offered to mediate between France and Russia. This, however, was refused by Russia, unless the French Emperor would admit Great Britain to negotiate at the same time, which was no part of his policy. Bonaparte had, indeed, in the beginning of 1805, made offers to negotiate by a letter addressed personally to his Majesty, whose answer, conveyed by lord Mulgrave, secretary of state, intimated that his majesty could not enter into a farther discussion, without a communication with his allies, and particularly with the emperor of Russia.

In the mean time Austria, alarmed at the march of some new French troops into Italy, demanded an explanation, which was evaded ; and, in the month of March, the emperor of France declared himself king of Italy, but professed that from the period of its being evacuated by foreign armies, he would transmit the crown of Italy to one of his male children whether natural or adopted. Accordingly by this sole act of arbitrary power, he was crowned at Milan on the

26th of May, with great pomp, and as a farther infraction on the independence of that country, Genoa was annexed to France. This last violence put an end to all hopes of pacification with Russia, and both there and in the Austrian dominions, the most formidable preparations for war were carried on, and treaties entered into with Great Britain for such assistance as she might be enabled to afford.

In other respects, the war was hitherto, on the part of Great Britain, of the defensive kind, as far as concerned military operations. The navy, however, which blockaded all the ports of the enemy, and began to cover the seas, had its usual success, in capturing a prodigious number of ships of war and commerce. France continued its menaces of invasion, and at one time had collected upwards of three hundred thousand men on the coast most adjacent and likely to further its purposes. The disputes, however, with Russia and Germany soon rendered it necessary to detach a great proportion of this force into other parts of Europe; and Bonaparte, with an ambition which universal empire only seemed sufficient to gratify, found a new enemy in every new acquisition of territory. In order to further his views of Germany, which amidst the most hypocritical professions of forbearance, were regular, preconcerted and systematic, he endeavoured to separate the head of that empire from the members, declared that he would consider all aggressions which might be attempted against the German body, and especially against Bavaria, as formal declarations of war, and that he would never separate the interests of the empire from those of the princes of Germany who were attached to him.

The Austrians contemning these menaces, passed the river Inn, and entered the Bavarian territories, with a force estimated at fifty-five thousand men, while the hereditary states came forward in support of their sovereign with an enthusiasm worthy of the best period of their history. The preparations on the part of Russia were no less extensive. It was generally understood that Austria had prepared above three hundred thousand, Russia one hundred and eighty thousand, and that the militia of Tyrol might be estimated at twenty thousand men. Such a force seemed to promise success, but such was the want of conduct or concert between these allied powers, and such the expedition

of the French in bringing on engagements before the allies had matured their plans, that the war proved wholly disadvantageous to the latter, and was attended with reverses of the most disastrous kind.

The French army crossed the Rhine on the 25th and 26th of September, 1805, in three divisions, and succeeded in bringing the Austrians to action before they were joined by the Russians, and defeated them at Wertingen and Gunsburgh with considerable loss. In the mean time, Bonaparte had recourse to one of those violent and tyrannical measures which distinguished his government. Notwithstanding the neutrality religiously observed by the king of Prussia, the French army under general Bernadotte, amounting to 20,000 men, entered the Prussian provinces in Franconia, and when this was complained of by the Prussian generals and ministers, the only answer condescended by the French commander was, that he had orders to pass by force, if it should be necessary,

The defeat of the Austrian army had as yet been only partial, but on the 13th of October marshal Soult surrounded Memingen, which capitulated with a garrison of nine battalions. On the 19th the Austrians made a sortie from Ulm, attacked the French division under Dupont, by which they were defeated with the loss of 1500 prisoners. In a few days, Ulm, which was commanded by the Austrian general Mack, surrendered to the French under circumstances of a very suspicious kind: and at the battles of Wertingen, Gunsburgh, Memingen, Ulm, and some inferior actions, the Austrians were computed to have lost 40,000 men.

The junction of the Austrians and Russians, which was at first attended with appearances of success, finally led only to a more signal and decisive action, in which the French, by their superiority in numbers, were completely victorious. This, which is generally known by the name of the battle of Austerlitz, was fought on the 2nd of December. The Russian army consisted of 50,000 men, and the Austrian of not quite 25,000, both which numbers were grossly exaggerated in the French accounts. The French amounted to nearly 100,000, commanded by Bonaparte and the ablest of his generals. The number of killed and taken on either side have never been exactly ascertained. The consequence,

however, was an armistice between the hostile armies, signed on the 6th, and a treaty of peace was concluded at Presburgh, on the 26th. According to the terms of this treaty, France was to continue in possession of the territories beyond the Alps, and the emperor of Germany was to acknowledge Bonaparte as king of Italy, but the latter agreed to separate the crown of Italy, and not to unite it again on the same head. The cessions on the part of the emperor of Germany were sufficiently humiliating: on the other hand the emperor Napoleon guaranteed the integrity of the empire of Austria in the state to which he had now reduced it, as well as the integrity of the house of Austria.

The Russian army, after the battle of Austerlitz, kept the field until next morning, and when the armistice was concluded on the part of the emperor of Germany, at his particular request, commenced their retreat, which was effected in good order, and without loss, notwithstanding the assertion of the French, that during the negotiations with Austria, their army prosecuted its victories.

While the emperor Napoleon was thus triumphing over Austria, dictating the most mortifying terms, and extending his continental power, and at the very moment he was declaring that he wanted only ships, colonies, and commerce, his views were baffled by a victory on the part of the British navy, more glorious and decisive than can be paralleled in history.

Vice-admiral lord Nelson had the command of the fleet destined to watch the Spanish harbour of Cadiz, which at that time contained the combined fleets of France and Spain. On the 19th of October, it was communicated to his lordship that this fleet had put to sea, and as he concluded that their destination was the Mediterranean, he immediately made all sail for the entrance of the Straits with the British squadron, consisting of twenty-seven ships, three of them sixty-fours. On Monday the 21st, at daylight, the enemy was discovered off Cape Trafalgar. The commander-in-chief immediately made the signal for the fleet to bear up in two columns, as they formed in order of sailing; a mode of attack which he had previously directed, to avoid the inconvenience and delay in forming a line of battle in the usual manner, while he gave out as the signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Never was expectation more

amply fulfilled, nor orders obeyed with more perfect regularity and effect. The enemy's line, consisted of thirty-three ships, of which eighteen were French and fifteen Spanish, the French under admiral Villeneuve, who was also commander-in-chief, and the Spaniards under admiral Gravina.

The action began at twelve o'clock, by the leading ships of the columns breaking through the enemy's line ; the commander-in-chief about the tenth ship from the van, and admiral Collingwood about the twelfth from the rear, leaving the van of the enemy unoccupied, the succeeding ships breaking through in all parts, astern of their leaders, and engaging the enemy at the muzzles of their guns. The conflict was severe, and the enemy fought with acknowledged bravery, but the impulse of British skill and courage was irresistible. About three in the afternoon, many of the French and Spanish ships having struck their colours, their line gave way. Admiral Gravina, with ten ships, joining their frigates to leeward, stood towards Cadiz. The five headmost ships in their van tacked, and standing to the southward, to windward of the British line, were engaged, and the sternmost of them taken : the others went off, leaving to his majesty's squadron nineteen ships of the line, of which two were first rates, with Villeneuve, commander-in-chief, and two other flag officers.

Such a battle could not have been fought without sustaining great loss of men. The number of killed, however, did not exceed four hundred and twenty three, nor that of the wounded eleven hundred and sixty-four. The gallant Nelson, however, already immortalized by the battle of Aboukir, fell in the arms of victory, just as he had achieved the present more extensive and memorable defeat of the enemy. About the middle of the action his lordship received a musket-ball in his left breast, which was aimed at him from the top of the ship with which he was engaged. On his being carried below, he complained of acute pain in the breast, and of privation of sense and motion of the body and inferior extremities : his respiration became short and difficult : his pulse small, weak, and irregular ; he frequently declared that his back seemed shot through : that he felt every instant a gush of blood within his breast, and that he had sensations which indicated the approach of death. In the course

of an hour, his pulse became indistinct, his extremities and forehead cold, but he retained his wonted energy of mind and exercise of his faculties, to the latest moment of his existence: and, when victory, as signal as decisive, was announced to him, he expressed his pious acknowledgments, and heartfelt satisfaction at the glorious event in the most emphatic language. He delivered his last orders with his usual precision, and in a few minutes after expired without a struggle.

The battle of Trafalgar was immediately followed by an action eminently worthy to accompany its glories. Sir Richard Strachan, while cruising off Ferrol with four ships of the line, one of eighty and three of seventy-four guns, fell in with what he conceived to be a squadron of the French that set sail from Rochfort, and consisted likewise of four ships of the line of the same weight of metal. A most gallant action immediately commenced, and terminated in the total defeat and capture of these ships, which the conqueror then discovered to be part of the Cadiz fleet that had retreated from the battle of Trafalgar. Of the whole, therefore, of that combined fleet of thirty-three sail of the line, four only escaped, the rest being either taken or destroyed.

The intelligence of this victory was received at home with mingled sensations of joy and regret. It was impossible not to participate in the general congratulation, that we were now possessed of a navy, which, humanly speaking, appeared to be invincible: but the reflection that we had lost the most gallant and accomplished officer in our service, in the prime of life, and the zenith of his fame, one who had long been the terror of our enemies, diffused a sensation of the deepest sorrow, which was manifested by every public testimony of regard for his memory. His remains having been brought to England, were interred in the cathedral-church of St. Paul, accompanied by a procession, which for extent and grandeur, exceeded any thing of the kind ever known.

Nor was this the only circumstance which cast a damp on what would otherwise have gladdened the public mind. Notwithstanding our firm and justifiable reliance on our navy, which had done all that a navy can do, the critical state of the affairs of Europe could not fail to impress the apprehension that it was no longer possible to restrain the ambition of the French sovereign, and that the few remain-



ing independent states, without more vigour and concert than had yet been discovered in their proceedings, must soon become either the allies or vassals of a power which had given many proofs that it was no longer to be restrained by the accustomed laws of justice and the rights of nations.

On the meeting of parliament, January 21, 1806, these matters were introduced in the opening speech, when his Majesty congratulated the country on the late glorious victory, which had not only confirmed in the most signal manner our maritime superiority, but had essentially contributed to the security of his Majesty's dominions. It was also stated, that although the emperor of Germany had felt himself compelled to withdraw from the contest, his Majesty continued to receive from the emperor of Russia the strongest assurances of unshaken adherence to that generous and enlightened policy by which he had hitherto been actuated.

The two houses then proceeded to the ordinary business of the session, which was very soon interrupted by an event that deranged the plans of administration, and led to some important changes. We allude to the death of the right honourable William Pitt, a minister of high and acknowledged talents, who, with a short interval of retirement in 1801, had held the first office of state for twenty-three years. His health had been for some time in a state of decline, exhibiting symptoms of general debility, mixed with an hereditary gout, which put an end to his life on the 23rd of January, in the forty-seventh year of his age. There was reason to think that his death was accelerated by excessive anxiety and attention to business, and that the reverses experienced by our allies on the continent had contributed not a little to exasperate his disorder. Sensible that the nation had lost a minister of transcendent abilities, the parliament ordered a public funeral and monument, and every mark of respect was paid to his memory.

Soon after Mr. Pitt's death, his colleagues in office, unanimously resigned their situations, and within a few weeks an administration was formed partly of those who had formerly acted with Mr. Pitt during his long administration, extending from 1783 to 1801, and partly of those who had always spoken and voted in opposition to his measures. Among the former were, lord Grenville, earl Spencer, and lord

Sidmouth, and among the latter lord Erskine, Mr. Grey, Mr. Sheridan, and Mr. Fox; lord Grenville was appointed first lord of the treasury; Mr. Fox, earl Spencer, and Mr. Windham, secretaries of state; lord Henry Petty, second son of the marquis of Lansdowne, chancellor of the exchequer; Mr. Grey, first lord of the Admiralty; Mr. Sheridan, treasurer of the navy; earl Moira, master of the ordnance; earl Fitzwilliam, president of the council, lord Sidmouth, privy seal; John duke of Bedford, lord-lieutenant of Ireland; and Mr. Erskine, created lord Erskine, lord-high-chancellor.

Among the first proceedings of this administration, which affected the state of war, was a message to parliament acquainting the houses that his Prussian majesty having, in a moment of confidential intercourse, taken possession of his Britannic majesty's electoral dominions, and aggravated the injury by determining to exclude by force the vessels and commodities of this kingdom from ports and countries under the lawful dominion or forcible control of Prussia, it became necessary to consider her as a hostile power. This event was soon after followed by a change in the constitution of Germany, of which the following is a brief outline.

The old constitutional union having being dissolved according to a plan proposed by the French emperor, a new treaty of confederation was agreed on; and he caused himself to be declared protector of the alliance; an honour which he certainly deserved, as being the contriver and imposer of the whole system; one consequence of which was, that Francis II. was obliged formally to abdicate the high and important office of emperor of Germany, and thus all the ties that had hitherto attached the states of Germany to the imperial jurisdiction and supremacy were for ever dissolved.

The state of Europe in consequence of these transactions, which put an end to all hopes of restricting the power of France, led eventually to an attempt to negotiate a peace between France and Great Britain. The correspondence relating to this matter began to take place soon after the establishment of the new administration, and much was expected from the apparent cordiality with which the two governments commenced their proceedings, and from the character which Mr. Fox was supposed to hold at the court

of France, as a statesman averse to a continuance of unnecessary hostilities, and desirous of listening to terms of mutual conciliation; but experience proved that the time was not yet come when the ambition of France would declare itself satiated, and listen to the voice of moderation.

The negotiation originated in an offer made by the French government of treating for peace, on the basis of actual possession, which was stated to admit of mutual compensation. This basis, however, was soon departed from by the enemy, and it became sufficiently obvious that peace could only be obtained by such sacrifices as would be utterly incompatible with the honour and security of the British nation. After the conferences had been protracted therefore, to an unusual length, the English plenipotentiaries returned, without effecting any thing.

The conduct of the French government had, indeed, now become so insufferable by its violence and perfidy, that even the king of Prussia, who had remained longer the ally of France than any other power of Europe, and had consequently submitted to more and greater instances of humiliation, was at length compelled to declare that forbearance could be no longer practised, and as it appeared impossible to submit to more indignities, he stated that he must henceforth confide the safety and honour of his crown only to arms.

The period, however, which he had now chosen to resist the power of France was peculiarly unfortunate. He had left himself no ally; his troops had enjoyed a peace of so long duration, that they were utterly unacquainted with those changes that had been introduced in military tactics, and yet with all these disadvantages his majesty determined to risk the whole on the event of a battle. That battle was fought on the 14th of October, at Jena, and completely decided in favour of the French, about half-past three in the afternoon. The Prussian army is supposed to have amounted to 90,000 men: while the French, commanded by Bonaparte in person, amounted to nearly double the number. The consequence of Prussia, as a continental power, was now annihilated, and infatuation completed what impolicy had begun.

The proceedings of parliament during this year were principally distinguished by the final abolition of the Slave-trade, a measure which had been originally agitated about twenty years ago, and had been successively debated in almost every

session of parliament since. Notwithstanding many disappointments and much obloquy, the friends of the abolition persisted in their endeavours, meeting every fresh discussion in the most open and liberal manner, until the conviction became general that this trade was disgraceful to the nation, and unnecessary to the welfare of our West India islands. The last question of abolition was introduced into parliament, on the 10th of June 1806, by Mr. Fox, when it was carried by a majority of 114 to 15, and a similar motion was carried in the house of lords a few days after by a majority of 41 to 20. The month of September was marked by the demise of the right hon. C. J. Fox, secretary of state for foreign affairs. He died at the seat of the duke of Devonshire, at Chiswick, in the fifty-ninth year of his age; and his remains were interred with great pomp in Westminster abbey.

Early in the following year his Britannic majesty had an opportunity of demonstrating his zealous attachment to the Protestant religion; and this opportunity he embraced in a manner which will reflect everlasting honour upon his name and character. A bill, having for its object the emancipation of papists from their present inability to hold places of trust under government, had been introduced into parliament, and strenuously supported by the ministers. His majesty feeling it impossible to affix his assent to such a bill without violating his coronation-oath, was naturally offended, and required a solemn assurance from the ministers, that, after abandoning the measure, they would never again revive it. This proposal was rejected, and upon their consequent resignation, the duke of Portland was appointed first lord of the treasury, Mr. Canning, lord Hawkesbury and lord Castlereagh, secretaries of state; Mr. Perceval, chancellor of the exchequer; lord Mulgrave, first lord of the admiralty; and lord Eldon, lord-high-chancellor.

On the continent appearances were, for a short time, favourable to the allies, and the laurels which Bonaparte had gathered so profusely in Italy and Germany, seemed likely to wither among the morasses of Poland. Victory, however, returned to the French standards in the battles of Pulstuck and Eylau; Dantzic fell into their possession shortly afterwards; and in the grand contest which took place at Friedland, on the 14th of June, the Russians were defeated with such prodigious slaughter, that their emperor

thought proper to sign an armistice at Tilsit, which was soon followed by preliminaries of peace. The Prussian monarch, now abandoned by his imperial ally, was obliged to submit to his fate; and by the arrangements of the new treaty, he lost nearly half his possessions.

With a view to the advantages of the Russians, who were at the same time engaged in a war with France, and with the Turks, an English squadron, under the command of sir J. T. Duckworth, and sir T. Louis, forced the passage of the Dardanelles, and proceeded to Constantinople; but after ten days' fruitless attempt to accomplish this intended object, the British commander judged it expedient to retire.

About the same time intelligence was received of the recapture of Buenos Ayres from the British. The small force which had been left to protect this extensive acquisition, rendered the success of a revolt probable; and general Liniers, a French officer in the Spanish service, having excited a spirit of rebellion among the inhabitants, made an attack upon the town, the streets of which were soon filled by Spanish troops, whilst a war of ambush was carried on upon the tops of the houses. A flag of truce was, therefore, displayed on the castle, and the British forces having capitulated, marched out with all the honours of war. An attempt was subsequently made to retake the town; but it was frustrated through the ignorance or pusillanimity of general Whitelocke, who, on his return to England, was tried by a court-martial, and dismissed his majesty's service. The city and fortress of Monte Video, however, were taken by about four thousand British troops under the command of colonel Browne.

The court of Denmark having committed several acts of hostility against Great Britain, and it being suspected that the navy of that country was to be at the disposal of Bonaparte, an expedition was despatched under the command of lord Gambier and earl Macartney, to offer protection against the French, or to take possession of the Danish fleet and naval stores. On the 16th of August the debarkation of the troops was effected, and the object of the fleet and army was fully explained to the people in a temperate proclamation. On the 2nd of September a surrender of the naval stores and vessels of his Danish majesty into the care of the British was formally demanded; and on his demand, being

rejected, Copenhagen was bombarded in the most severe manner, for three successive days and nights. The conflagration which ensued seemed to threaten nothing less than the destruction of the city; in consequence of which the Danes requested an armistice; and on the 7th their fleet, consisting of sixteen ships of the line, fifteen frigates, six brigs, and twenty-five gun-boats, together with the naval stores, were surrendered by capitulation. The property of the inhabitants was held sacred, and all prisoners were restored, on this occasion.

Scarcely had the treaty of Tilsit been concluded, before the Corsican usurper meditated the complete subversion of the Spanish monarchy. He accordingly contrived, under various plausible pretences, to introduce a powerful French force into Spain; he then prevailed on the king to abdicate his throne; and having succeeded in drawing his successor, Ferdinand, beyond the protection of the army, he sent him a prisoner to France, and proclaimed his own brother, Joseph, king of Spain, and of the Indies.

The general consternation which at first resulted from this daring outrage, on the part of the despot of France, had no sooner subsided, than a general insurrection broke out among the Spaniards, who declared eternal war against their base and audacious oppressors. The French troops were, in consequence, defeated in various parts, and Joseph Bonaparte, with his armed myrmidons, were compelled to quit the capital, in the most precipitate and disgraceful manner. A supreme and central junta was also formed; war was formally declared against France, in the name of Ferdinand the Seventh; and deputies were despatched to implore the assistance of Great Britain, with which peace had been already proclaimed. Accordingly an expedition was fitted out, under the command of sir David Baird, and ample supplies of money, arms, and ammunition, were sent to the gallant patriots.

The successes of the Spaniards, however, proved but short-lived; for Bonaparte, with that promptitude which so peculiarly marked his character, reappeared on the frontiers of Spain, with a numerous force, and, in a series of engagements, vanquished the patriots, regained the towns and fortresses of which they had taken possession, and entered the ill-fated capital in triumph.

The prince regent of Portugal, who, under the protection of the English, had emigrated, with his court, to the Brazils, at a period when the French ruler had menaced his liberty and life, addressed a manifesto to his subjects, which occasioned an almost universal rising in the north of Portugal, and the consequent expulsion of the French forces, who, from that quarter, had audaciously invaded the country. The Portuguese juntas, formed on this occasion, immediately solicited the aid of the British; and a powerful force, under sir Arthur Wellesley, was landed on the coast of Portugal, and proceeded towards the capital, in order to attack the French army under general Junot. After some skirmishes, in which the enemy were invariably foiled, a severe and obstinate battle was fought near the village of Vimiera, and the French were obliged to retreat, with the loss of thirteen pieces of cannon and about three thousand men, in killed and wounded. On the following day, however, sir Hugh Dalrymple, who had been called from his situation of lieutenant governor of Gibraltar, to assume the command of all the British corps sent into Portugal, arrived at Cintra, the place which the conquerors had occupied after the battle; and, a few hours after his arrival, Junot sent in a flag of truce, proposing a cessation of hostilities. This was readily granted; and a convention was soon afterwards concluded between the two generals, by which the French army was to evacuate Portugal; on condition of being conveyed to France at the expense of the British. One article, however, which stipulated that the Russian fleet, then lying in the Tagus, should either remain there unmolested, or return home, was peremptorily rejected by sir C. Cotton, to whom it was subsequently surrendered, on condition of being restored, six months after the conclusion of peace between Russia and Great Britain. The convention of Cintra excited the greatest dissatisfaction in England, and petitions poured in from all parts of the kingdom, calling loudly for an inquiry into that unaccountable transaction. A formal declaration of his majesty's disapproval of both the armistice and the convention was officially communicated to sir H. Dalrymple; and a court of inquiry was instituted, but without producing any thing worthy of notice.

The commencement of the year 1809 was marked by an event equally glorious and disastrous to the British forces in

Spain. Sir John Moore, who, with the troops under his command, had penetrated almost to the centre of the kingdom, was compelled, by the overwhelming numbers of the French, to retreat with the utmost precipitation. On this occasion he displayed the most consummate skill, and, in the engagement which took place on his arrival at Corunna, the enemy were completely defeated, and compelled to fly in all directions; but whilst the British troops, literally covered with laurels, embarked on board the transports without molestation, they had to regret the loss of their heroic commander, who fell at the commencement of the battle.

The hope of ultimately succeeding against the tyrant of the continent had nearly subsided, when the Austrian cabinet published a declaration of war against France. Bonaparte, however, having contrived to force himself between the principal divisions of the Austrian army, defeated them in several engagements, and soon made himself master of Vienna; and notwithstanding a serious repulse which he received from the archduke Charles, on the bank of the Danube, the battle of Wagram was so decisive, that the emperor of Austria was obliged to request a cessation of hostilities, and subsequently to conclude a peace, upon very disadvantageous terms.

Whilst these occurrences were passing on the continent, the British cabinet hoped, by making a diversion in favour of their allies, to check the progress of the enemy; and sir Arthur Wellesley having again defeated the French troops, and chased them from Portugal, marched with a numerous force into Spain, and formed a junction with the Spanish army, commanded by general Cuesta, at Talavera. On the 27th of July an engagement took place, in which the French were compelled to retreat across the Alberche, with the loss of twenty pieces of cannon, a considerable quantity of ammunition, and nearly ten thousand men killed and wounded. But as the British general received intelligence, soon after the battle, that the enemy designed to attack him, both in front and in rear, with a very superior force, he immediately recrossed the Tagus, and retreated to a strong position in Portugal. It must be added, that the heroic bravery exhibited by sir Arthur, in the battle of Talavera,



induced his Britannic majesty to create him a peer, by the title of viscount Wellington.

With a view to occasion a further diversion on behalf of the Austrians, and also to attempt the capture or destruction of the French vessels lying in the Scheldt, a British army of fifty thousand men was landed on the island of Walcheren; but a considerable time having elapsed prior to the reduction of Flushing, the enemy collected a numerous force, raised several formidable batteries, and conveyed there ships up the river, beyond fort Lillo. That part of the country also, where the English might have landed, was completely inundated. Walcheren, the only fruit of this expensive and unfortunate expedition, was to have been retained by the conquerors, for the purpose of shutting up the mouth of the Scheldt, and of facilitating the introduction of British manufactures into Holland. This design, however, was rendered abortive by the unhealthiness of the climate; and after great numbers of the troops had fallen a sacrifice, the British army evacuated the island on the 9th of December, having previously destroyed the fortifications, arsenal, docks, and basin. Some old ships filled with stores were also sunk at the entrance of the Scheldt, to preclude an escape of the French fleet from the place of its retreat.

The parliamentary proceedings of this year were rendered remarkable by an inquiry into the conduct of the duke of York, as commander-in-chief, in consequence of his having been charged with an illegal disposal of commissions in the army. His royal highness, though acquitted by a majority of the house of commons, resigned his office, in which he was succeeded by sir David Dundas.

Among the gallant actions which were performed this year by the British navy, we must notice an attack upon the French fleet in Basque roads, by lord Gambier and lord Cochrane, on the 11th and 12th of April, when one ship of 120 guns, five of 74, and two frigates, were driven on shore in such a situation as ensured their destruction; and one of 80, two of 74, one of 50 guns, and three frigates were burnt. And to this exploit must be added the capture of a Russian flotilla and convoy in the Baltic, by sir J. Saumarez: the destruction of three sail of the line, two frigates, and twenty French transports, in the bay of Rosas by lord Collingwood;

and the reduction of the islands of Cayenne, Martinique, Ischia, and Florida, and the city of St. Domingo.

Whilst these victories were extending the honour of the British arms abroad, the nation was exhilarated at home by the important and interesting event of their beloved monarch's entrance into the fiftieth year of his reign. It was accordingly celebrated as a jubilee by all ranks throughout the united kingdom. In the metropolis the joyous day was announced by the ringing of bells, the display of flags, and the assembling of the various corps of regular and volunteer troops. The forenoon was devoted to public worship; collections and subscriptions were made for the relief of indigent families, and the emancipation of poor debtors; and the evening was marked by a splendid and general illumination.

The commencement of the year 1810, was marked by the entrance of the French into Andalusia, their manœuvres having completely deceived the Spaniards. On the 29th of January they approached within two leagues of Seville, from which the inhabitants fled in all directions; and, in consequence of the general alarm excited by this irruption, immense numbers sought an asylum within the walls of Cadiz. After some time, however, the general panic subsided, as little doubt was entertained of the final defence of Cadiz, and a supply of provisions, commensurate with the increased population, arrived at this critical juncture. The Spanish fleet lying in the harbour was placed at the disposal of admiral Purvis; and both the military and political government of the fortress were intrusted to a mercantile junta, consisting of three distinct classes; as it was conceived that such characters were most likely to adopt the best means for the public security. Early in February the French entered Malaga, which was given up to be pillaged for two days. Almeida surrendered to the army under Massena on the 27th of August; and Seville was reduced to the most wretched condition by the unremitting demands of the invaders, and the brutality of their general, Soult. The flame of patriotism, however, continued to spread among the Spaniards, whose desultory mode of warfare against their cruel enemy, was, in many instances, crowned with success; and notwithstanding the pompous gasconades of the French, with respect to Portugal, Lisbon remained secure beneath the shelter of

the British <sup>\*</sup>arms, and the proud Massena thought proper to retreat before lord Wellington, after the battle of Busaco.

Whilst these occurrences were taking place in Spain and Portugal, Louis Bonaparte, having in vain attempted to ameliorate the condition of the Hollanders, published a formal abdication of the crown; and on the 9th of July this unfortunate country was annexed to France by a decree of the Corsican tyrant, who, after divorcing his *empress* Josephine, had espoused the archduchess Maria Louisa, on the first of April!

At home, a considerable stir was occasioned for a short time by the punishment of sir Francis Burdett, for a breach of privilege. On the 12th of March this member made a motion in the house of commons, respecting the recent committal of John Gale Jones, the conductor of a debating society, for having announced, in a hand-bill, the following comparative question, "Which is most deserving the censure of the public, Mr. Yorke's enforcement of the standing order of the house, to exclude strangers from the inquiry into the Walcheren expedition; or Mr. Windham's late attack on the liberty of the press?" Sir Francis endeavoured to prove, that though the house had a power of committal over its own members, it had no such power over others: but that this assumption of authority was of very recent date, and that it infringed upon the liberty of the subject, as provided for by *magna charta* and the bill of rights. His motion for the liberation of Jones being negatived, he afterwards addressed a letter on the subject to his constituents, through the medium of Cobbett's Political Register; and on the 27th of March this letter was introduced to the notice of parliament, by a Mr. Lethbridge, who moved that the publication was a libellous and scandalous paper, and that sir Francis Burdett having admitted it as his production, was guilty of a gross breach of the privileges of the house of commons. After an adjournment for one week, both these resolutions were carried; and a motion of sir R. Salisbury, that sir Francis should be committed to the Tower, was also carried by a majority of 37 members.

On the 6th of April, the baronet, who had been apprized of these proceedings, came to town from Wimbledon; but in an interview with the serjeant-at-arms, he urged the illegality of the speaker's warrant for his committal, and ex-

pressed his resolution to resist its execution, <sup>if</sup> necessary, by force. The reports which were immediately circulated inflamed the minds of the people to such a degree, that a great number of the lower order of persons assembled before the baronet's house, in Piccadilly, exclaiming, "Burdett for ever!" and imprecating vengeance on his enemies. At night they paraded the streets, constraining the inhabitants to illuminate their windows, and breaking the windows of all who refused to comply with this demand. The appearance of a troop of horse-guards, together with Mr. Reid the magistrate, and a number of constables, on the following day, excited the most alarming ferment in the multitude, which was now considerably augmented. Hisses, shrieks, groans, and every expression of indignation issued from all quarters; the guards were assaulted with showers of stones and brickbats; and even after the riot-act had been read, the commotion was so great, that it became necessary to send to Knightsbridge barracks, for an additional body of cavalry, who galloped among the crowd, and drove them up and down Piccadilly, and into the adjoining streets and alleys, where several persons were wounded, but only three seriously.

The following day, in consequence of the receipt of a letter from sir F. Burdett, the sheriffs of Middlesex arrived in Piccadilly, attended by the *posse comitatús* who formed a guard in front of the baronet's house, while the horse-guards, who had previously occupied that station, divided into two bodies, and took a position of about 500 yards on each side. The efforts of the sheriffs to appease the tumult, however, proved completely fruitless, and the horse-guards were again under the necessity of dispersing the mob, sword in hand. At the same time considerable bodies of cavalry and infantry were marched to town, and pieces of artillery were planted in the park, and in each of the principal squares, to overawe the rioters.

At length, on the 9th of April, the officers having forced an entrance through the kitchen window, the baronet was taken, and conveyed, in a glass-coach, to the Tower, under a strong guard. The indignation of the multitude was now particularly directed against the soldiery, who on their return from the Tower, were assaulted so furiously, that they at length charged their assailants, and continued firing

their carbines all the way through Fenchurch-street, where a ball entering a shop, mortally wounded a corn-porter of the name of Ebrall. After his death coroners' inquests were held on him, and on the body of another person who had been shot in Piccadilly; and verdicts were returned of "Wilful murder by life-guardsmen unknown." An inquest was also held on a third person, but, as he was proved to have attacked the military, the verdict returned was "justifiable homicide." At the prorogation of parliament, on the 21st of June, sir Francis was liberated from the Tower; and great preparations were made by his partisans to conduct him home in a triumphal procession; but this honour he declined, and retired, with the utmost privacy, to his seat at Wimbledon.

Another circumstance which excited the public attention this year, was an attempt to assassinate his royal highness the duke of Cumberland, on the 31st of May, in his apartments at St. James's palace. About half-past two o'clock in the morning, the prince was roused out of his sleep by two violent blows and cuts on the head, which were soon followed by a third. He then leaped out of his bed, and, on receiving several other blows, retired to a small room adjoining his chamber; but the assassin followed him, and wounded him across the thighs. Being unable to find his alarm bells, his royal highness called Neale, his valet in waiting, who immediately hastened to his master's assistance, and gave an alarm. Soon afterwards the duke proceeded to the porter's room, and ordered Neale to awaken Salis, his Italian valet. No answer being returned by Salis, the door of his bed-room was broken open, and he was found lifeless on the bed, with his throat cut from ear to ear. It seems that Salis, having failed in murdering the duke, had retired precipitately on the first alarm, and put a period to his own existence; for his coat, which was folded up on a chair, was stained with blood; a pair of his slippers and the scabbard of the sabre with which he had inflicted the wounds, were found in the closet adjoining the duke's chamber; and the blood left by his arm on the side of the narrow door, plainly discovered the way by which he escaped. It was a fortunate circumstance, however, that notwithstanding the duke had received six different wounds, one upon the upper part of the forehead, a second down the cheek, a third upon the arm, a fourth, by which the little finger was almost severed from

the hand, a fifth on the front of the body, and a sixth on the thigh, none of them proved mortal. His royal highness, as might have been expected, was confined for some time ; but at length the public were gratified with an assurance of his perfect recovery.

This, however, was not the only calamity which befel the royal family of England during the year 1810. The amiable princess Amelia, his majesty's youngest daughter, after enduring a most tedious and distressing illness, and expecting, in vain, the renovation of her health, conceived a wish of presenting her royal father with some token of filial affection, previous to that awful change which she considered to be drawing very near. Accordingly, in an interview with his majesty, she placed on his finger a ring, which had been made for the purpose ; but the affecting manner in which she performed this action, accompanied by the impressive words, "*Remember me,*" proved too much for the agitated monarch, already weakened by many severe trials ; and the indisposition, both bodily and mental, which ensued, involved the nation in sorrow, and rendered it necessary that parliament should turn their attention to the subject of a regency. The princess, who had most unintentionally given this shock to the susceptible mind of her august parent, expired on the 2nd of November, and was interred at Windsor.

From motives of delicacy, some time was suffered to elapse before any decisive measures were adopted by parliament ; and after repeated adjournments it was deemed advisable to proceed by bill rather than address. A regency bill was, therefore, proposed, at the commencement of the year 1811, and carried through both houses, by which it was enacted, that his royal highness the Prince of Wales, should exercise the office and authority of regent of the united kingdom of England and Ireland, in the name and on the behalf of his royal father, during the continuance of his majesty's illness : but as sanguine hopes were still entertained respecting the king's recovery, it was enacted, that the power of elevating any person or persons to the peerage should be suspended for twelve months ; and that all offices and pensions which might be granted by the prince, should continue only during his regency, unless the same should be afterwards approved and confirmed by his majesty. The

care of the king's person was, at the same time, committed to her majesty.

The 6th of February 1811, being the day appointed for swearing in the prince of Wales as regent, about a quarter before two o'clock all the dukes, and a numerous assemblage of privy-councillors, met at Carlton-house. The whole of the magnificent suite of state apartments were thrown open, and the illustrious characters present were ushered into the *gold room*, which received that appellation from the style of the ornaments. After the prince had been officially informed of the return of the summons, &c., his royal highness approached in grand procession, preceded by the officers of his council. They passed through the room where the privy-councillors were assembled, and through the circular drawing-room into the grand saloon, a beautiful apartment in scarlet drapery, embellished with portraits of all the most celebrated admirals whose brilliant victories have confirmed to England her dominion over the seas. Here the prince took his seat at the head of the table, his royal brothers and cousin seating themselves on his right and left hand, according to their seniority; whilst all the officers of the household, who were not privy councillors, ranged themselves on each side of the entrance to the saloon. His royal highness then spoke to the following effect: "My lords, I understand that by the act of parliament appointing me regent of the united kingdom, in the name and on behalf of his majesty, I am required to take certain oaths, and to make a declaration before your lordships, as prescribed by the said act. I am now ready to take these oaths, and to make the declaration prescribed."

The lord-privy-seal now respectfully approached the regent, and read from a parchment the following oaths, which the prince pronounced after him with an audible voice.

"I do sincerely promise and swear, that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to his majesty, king George. So help me God.

"I do solemnly, promise and swear, that I will truly and faithfully execute the office of regent of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, according to an act of parliament passed in the fifty-first year of the reign of his majesty, king George the Third, intituled, 'An act, &c.' and that I will administer, according to law, the power and authority"

vested in me by virtue of the said act; and that I will in all things, to the utmost of my power and ability, consult and maintain the safety, honour, and dignity of his majesty, and the welfare of his people. So help me God."

The regent having subscribed these oaths, the lord-president laid before him the declaration mentioned in an act made in the thirtieth year of Charles II. intituled, "An act for the more effectual preserving the king's person and government, by disabling papists from sitting in either house of parliament;" and this declaration his royal highness repeated and subscribed. These instruments were also witnessed by the signatures of the lord-president and each of the privy-councillors; after which they were delivered to the keeper of the records.

The lord-president then approached the regent, and had the honour to kiss his hand. The royal dukes followed, and afterwards the archbishop of Canterbury; and all the rest advanced to the chair, on both sides, in the order in which they had been seated at the long table. The ceremony being closed, a short levee was held in the drawing-room, when his royal highness addressed himself to the circle; and afterwards he gave an audience to Mr. Perceval, who had again the honour of kissing his hand, as first lord of the Treasury and chancellor of the Exchequer.

On the 12th of February parliament was opened by commission, and in the speech delivered on that occasion, after some expressions of the most lively concern on the subject of national calamity which had rendered a regency indispensable; a cheerful picture was drawn of the valour and skill of his majesty's forces, both by sea and land, in the late campaign; of the frustration of the enemy's designs in Portugal, and at Cadiz; and of the effect produced, by the example of British heroism, upon the troops of his majesty's allies. It was also stated, that between England and America discussions were depending, which the regent earnestly wished to bring to an amicable conclusion. And the fullest confidence was expressed in the zeal and liberality of parliament for the provision of such supplies as might prove commensurate with the wants of government. To this speech an address was moved by the earl of Aberdeen in the house of lords, and by Mr. Milnes in the house of commons; which, after some opposition, was carried.



Previously, however, to a further account of the proceedings in parliament, or the state of affairs on the continent, it may be proper to give some particulars respecting a most splendid fête, given by the prince-regent on the evening of the 19th of June, with a twofold motive; first, in honour of the birthday of his royal parent, and secondly, for the benefit of the numerous classes of British artists, who, in consequence of the indisposition of the king, and the discontinuance of the usual splendour of the court, had suffered very materially; and under this consideration the regent requested that all his invited guests would attend in habits of British manufacture.

About nine o'clock the company began to assemble; and the royal family, with the principal nobility and gentry, came early. The most delightful marches and airs were alternately played by the full bands of the three regiments of foot-guards, and the regent's band, in their state uniforms. The Grecian hall was ornamented with shrubs, and an additional number of lanterns and patent lamps; the floor was carpeted, and two lines, consisting of yeomen of the guards, the king's, the regent's, the queen's, and the royal duke's servants, in their most sumptuous liveries, formed an avenue to the octagonal hall, which was decorated with antique draperies, trimmed with gold-colour, and fastened up by gold-colour cords and tassels. The regent entered the state apartments at a quarter past nine; he was dressed in a field-marshal's uniform, decorated with the riband and gorget of the order of the garter, and a diamond star. During the evening he passed from room to room, conversing with his guests in the most cheerful and condescending manner. The chief amusement of the company, for some time, consisted in perambulating the halls and apartments on the principal floor; and an universal expression of admiration was elicited by the appearance of the grand circular dining-room, in which the knights of the garter had been recently entertained. The room in which the throne stands was hung with crimson velvet, adorned with gold laces and fringes. The canopy of the throne was surmounted by golden helmets, with lofty plumes of ostrich feathers, and beneath it was placed the state chair; gold stools were also placed round the room, which exhibited portraits of their majesties, the prince-regent, and the duke

of York. Of the other apartments on this floor it must suffice to say, that they were all of the most magnificent kind. The ball-room floors were chalked in beautiful *arabesque* devices, and the largest was divided for two sets of dancers by a crimson silk cord; but owing to the great number of the guests, and the excessive heat of the weather, no dancing took place in this room. On supper being announced, about two o'clock, the company descended, by the great staircase, to the apartments below, and the temporary buildings erected on the lawn. The room at the bottom of the staircase represented a bower, with a grotto, lined with a rich profusion of shrubs and flowers. The grand table extended the whole length of the conservatory, and across Carlton-house to the length of two hundred feet. Along the middle of the table, about six inches above the surface, a canal of pure water continued flowing from a silver fountain, elegantly constructed, at the head of the table: its banks were covered with verdant moss and aquatic flowers, and gold and silver fish were seen sporting in the crystal stream, which produced a pleasing murmur where it fell, and formed a cascade at the outlet.

At the head of the table, above the fountain, sat his royal highness the regent, on a plain mahogany chair with a leather back, and his most particular friends were arranged on each side. They were attended by sixty *serviteurs*, seven of whom waited on the regent, besides twelve footmen belonging to their majesties in their state livery, with one man in a complete suit of ancient armour. At the back of the regent's seat were *aureole* tables, covered with crimson drapery, and constructed to exhibit, with the greatest possible effect, a profusion of gilt plate, consisting of fountains, tripods, epergnes, dishes, and other ornaments. Above the whole of this magnificent display appeared a royal crown, and the letters G. R. splendidly illuminated. Behind the prince's chair was most tastefully disposed a sideboard, covered with gold vases, urns, and massy salvers; the whole surmounted by a Spanish urn taken from on board "*the invincible armada*."

Adjoining to the great table were others, running through the library, and whole lower suite of rooms, the candelabras in which were so arranged that the regent could distinctly see, and be seen, from one end to the other; and from the

library, and the room beyond, branched out two lines of tables, under canvas, far into the gardens, all richly served with silver plate, and covered with the delicacies of the season.

When all the guests were seated there was a line of female beauty more richly adorned, and a blaze of jewellery more brilliant, than England ever probably displayed before. Four beautiful marquees were pitched on the lawn, with a *chevaux de frise* to prevent intrusion; bands of music were stationed in the tents; and when dancing commenced, the gay throng stepped over floors chalked with mosaic devices, and moved through thickets of aromatic shrubs and flowers, through the foliage of which a profusion of variegated lamps gleamed like stars. The company (which comprised all the members of administration, the foreign ambassadors, the principal nobility and gentry in town, the most distinguished military and naval officers, the lord mayor and lady mayoress, and the principal aldermen and magistrates) did not separate till six in the morning; and, for the gratification of the public, the preparations for the *fete* were permitted to remain several days.

In the house of commons, on the 21st of February, the chancellor of the exchequer stated, that having during the discussions on the regency bill, expressed his intention of moving for a provision with respect to the regent's household, not to exceed 12 or 13,000*l.* he had submitted his plan to the prince; but his royal highness had declared he would not, for his own personal magnificence, add another burden to those already imposed upon the public. Mr. Perceval added, it was sufficiently obvious, from the known character of the regent, that he had submitted to this instance of self-denial, and had refused all personal state from an economical consideration for the people, a consideration which would throw around him more real splendour than any royal establishment whatsoever.

But few bills of an interesting nature were passed during this session; except a bill for better preventing vexatious arrests, by raising the sum for which persons may be held to bail in mesne process; an act for permitting the interchange of the British and Irish militias from their respective countries; and a bill for preventing guineas, half-guineas, and seven-shilling pieces, from being taken for more than

### GEORGE III.

21s., 10s. 6d., and 7s., respectively, and for preventing bank notes from being taken for less than the sums expressed in them. On the 24th of July parliament was prorogued by commission, to the 12th of November, and on that day it was further prorogued to the 7th of January ensuing.

On the continent various successes attended the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese, and those of their cruel invaders; but generally speaking, whenever the British forces engaged, Bonaparte had the mortification to discover that his legions were not *invincible*; and some victories were obtained which will probably never be obliterated from the recollection of Britons, or of the patriotic bands on whose behalf they were achieved.

The battle of Barossa, which took place on the 5th of March, was fought under such peculiar circumstances, and with such disparity of numbers, that lieutenant-general Graham, in his despatches to the earl of Liverpool, begs leave to make a particular statement, in order to justify himself from the imputation of *rashness* in his attempt. From this statement it appears, that after a nocturnal march of sixteen hours from the camp near Veger, the allied army arrived in the morning on the low ridge of Barossa, about four miles to the southward of the Santi Petri river. This height extends inland about a mile and a half, containing on the north the extensive healthy plain of Chiclana. A large forest of pines skirts the plain, and circles round the height at some distance, terminating down to the Santi Petri; the intermediate space between the forest and the north-side of the height being uneven and broken. A well-conducted attack on the rear of the enemy's lines, by the van-guard of the Spanish army, having opened a communication with the Isle de Leon, general Graham received directions to move down from the position of Barossa to that of the Torre de Bermesa, about half-way to the Santi Petri, in order to secure the communication across that river, over which a bridge had been recently erected. This latter position occupies a narrow woody ridge, the right of the sea-cliff, the left falling down to the Almanza creek, on the edge of the marsh; while a hard sandy beach affords an easy communication between the western points of these two positions. General Graham's division having halted on the eastern slope of the Barossa height, was marched, about twelve o'clock,

through the wood towards the Bermesa, cavalry patrols having previously proceeded towards Chiclana without discovering the enemy. On the march intelligence was received that the enemy had appeared in force on the plain, and was advancing towards the heights of Barossa. As that position was in reality the key of that of Santi Petri, general Graham immediately countermarched, in order to support the troops left for its defence, and this manœuvre was executed with the greatest alacrity. It was impossible, however, on such difficult ground to preserve order in the columns, and there was never time to restore it completely. But before the troops could get entirely disentangled from the wood, those on the Barossa height were seen returning from it, while the enemy's left wing was rapidly ascending, his right standing on the plain, at the edge of the wood, within cannon-shot. As a retreat under these circumstances might have proved extremely detrimental to the whole allied army, an immediate attack was determined on, notwithstanding the numbers and position of the foe. As soon as the infantry was hastily collected together, a battery of ten guns opened, and kept up a most destructive fire in the centre, while the right wing proceeded to the attack of general Rufin's division on the hill, and drove them from their position; and the left wing decided the defeat of the division under general Laval. A reserve formed beyond the narrow valley, across which the enemy was closely pursued, shared the same fate; and in less than an hour and a half from the commencement of the action, the whole of the enemy's troops were in full retreat. In this brilliant affair the French are supposed to have lost about three thousand, in killed, wounded, and missing, and an eagle and six pieces of cannon fell into the hands of the conquerors. Generals Rufin, Rosseau, and Bellegarde, were also taken prisoners; the former of whom was wounded, and the second died soon after the engagement.

It may be proper to add, that when the expedition against the rear of the enemy was planned, an arrangement was made with sir R. G. Keats, for an attack on the French batteries in Cadiz bay, in order to effect a diversion. This plan, however, could not be executed, on account of the unfavourable weather, till the day after the battle of Barossa, when it was carried into effect with all the coolness and intrepidity of British seamen. All the batteries on the east

side of the bay, from Rota to St. Mary's, with the exception of fort Catalini, were carried by storm, the guns spiked, and the works completely destroyed.

Another brilliant display of British valour and intrepidity occurred in the battle of Albuera, which took place between marshal Soult and marshal sir W. Beresford, on the 16th of June.

On the 12th it was reported that Soult had broken up from Seville, and had advanced towards Estremadura, notwithstanding the rumours which had been previously circulated, that he was busily employed in strengthening Seville, and the approaches to that city, and that all his actions indicated an intention to remain on the defensive in Andalusia. In consequence of this intelligence sir W. Beresford raised the siege of Badajos without any loss, and having collected the troops under his command, formed a junction with generals Castanos and Blake at Albuera on the 15th. The following day he was attacked by the enemy, who for some time appeared likely to obtain the victory, in consequence of the great superiority of their cavalry and a numerous and heavy artillery; the determined heroism of the British troops, however, turned the fortune of the day, and in the night of the 17th the French thought proper to retreat, leaving about 2000 dead on the field of battle, and from 900 to 1000 taken prisoners. The losses in the allied army were also very great; but sir W. Beresford remarks, in his letter to lord Wellington, "Every individual most nobly did his duty; and it was observed that our dead, particularly the 57th regiment, were lying, as they had fought, in ranks, and every wound was in front."

To this testimony of the gallant general we shall add, for the reader's gratification, the following instances of individual heroism, which were related by Mr. Perceval in the house of commons. During the heat of the action, an ensign of the name of Thompson, was called upon to surrender the colours he held; but he declared he would give them up only with his life, and he fell a victim to his bravery. Another ensign, named Walsh, having fallen on the field severely wounded, tore his colours from the staff, and thrust them into his bosom, where they were found after his death. Sir W. Beresford was also attacked by one of the Polish cavalry, whom he dismounted, with the intention of saving his life;

but the man persisting in his first design was at length killed by a dragoon.

Of the other occurrences on the peninsula, our limits will only permit us to observe, that in consequence of the skilful and judicious conduct of lord Wellington, and the cordial unanimity subsisting between the British commanders and their Spanish and Portuguese allies, the French, notwithstanding some trifling successes, found it impossible to execute their recent boastful threat, of speedily crushing every appearance of rebellion; and the flame of patriotism acquired fresh lustre from the diminished reputation of the enemy.

Among the naval exploits which graced this year, we must notice the defeat of the French and Italian squadrons off the isle of Lissa; and the capture of the islands of Banda and Ternate, and of Batavia, the capital of the island of Java.

The combined squadrons alluded to consisted of five frigates, one corvette, one brig, two schooners, one gunboat, and one xebec, forming a total of 272 guns and 2655 men; to which were opposed his Britannic majesty's ships *Amphion*, *Cerberus*, *Active*, and *Volage*, carrying in all but 124 guns and 879 men. In the morning of the 13th of March, an enemy's fleet having been discovered off the north point of the island of Lissa, the action commenced by the British squadron firing on the headmost ships, as they came within range. Having made a fruitless attempt to break the line in two places, some of the enemy's vessels endeavoured to place their assailants between two fires, but they were so warmly received in this attempt, and rendered so completely unmanageable, that they went on shore on the rocks of Lissa, in the greatest confusion. The British line was then wore to renew the action, the *Amphion* not half a cable's length from the shore, the remainder of the enemy's starboard division passing under her stern, and engaging her at leeward, whilst the larboard division got to windward, and engaged the *Cerberus*, *Volage*, and *Active*. "In this situation," says captain Hoste, "the action commenced with great fury, his majesty's ships frequently in positions which unavoidably exposed them to a raking fire of the enemy, whose superiority of numbers enabled him to take advantage of it: but *nothing* could withstand the brave squadron I had the honour to command. The *Flora* having struck her colours

at twenty minutes past eleven A. M. and the *Bellona* having followed her example, the enemy to windward endeavoured to make off; but were followed up as close as the disabled state of his majesty's ships would permit; and the *Active* and *Cerberus* were enabled, at 3 P. M., to compel the sternmost of them to surrender, when the action ceased, leaving us in possession of the *Corona* of 44 guns, and the *Bellona* of 32 guns (the French commodore); the *Favorite* of 44 guns on shore, where she soon blew up with a dreadful explosion; the corvette of the enemy making all possible sail to the north-west, and two frigates crowding sail for the port of *Lessina*; the brig making off to the south-east; and the small craft flying in every direction."

The capture of the island of *Banda*, on the 9th of August, was also particularly honourable to the British arms. The attack was made on this settlement during a dark and squally night, by somewhat less than two hundred men, consisting of seamen and marines, and about forty of the *Madras European* regiment under the command of Captain *Coles*. A dark cloud with a fall of rain covered their landing within a hundred yards of a battery of ten guns, which was taken in the rear, and an officer and his guard were made prisoners, though the enemy were at their guns with lighted matches, having discovered the approach of his *Britannic* majesty's vessels on the preceding day. At the approach of daylight the assailants procured a guide to conduct them to the walls of the castle of *Belgica*; and after leaving a guard in charge of the battery, the party made a rapid movement round the skirts of the town, where the bugle was sounding an alarm among the enemy. In twenty minutes scaling ladders were placed against the walls of the outer pentagon of *Belgica*, and the gallantry and alacrity with which they were hauled up, after the outwork was carried, and placed for the attack of the inner work, under a sharp fire from the garrison, were truly astonishing. The enemy after firing three guns and keeping up an ineffectual discharge of musketry for about ten or fifteen minutes, fled in all directions, leaving their colonel commandant and ten others dead, and two officers and thirty prisoners in the hands of the victors. The day now beaming on the British, discovered to them the fort of *Nassau* and the sea-defences at their feet, and the enemy at their guns in different posts;



Admiral Drury then despatched a flag of truce to the governor, demanding the immediate surrender of the fort, and promising to protect all private property. At sunrise the Dutch flag was hoisted in Nassau, and the sea-batteries opened a fire on one of the British vessels then approaching the harbour; but on a second flag of truce being sent to the governor, with a menace of storming the fort and laying the town in ashes if the colours were not instantly struck, an unqualified surrender was agreed on, and the British heroes found themselves in possession of the two forts and several batteries, mounting one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, and defended by nearly seven hundred disciplined troops and the militia.

It is also necessary to add, that the island of Ternate, though so famous for the strength of its fortifications, and memorable for its defence in the last war against the English, was completely subjugated in less than one day (the 29th of August) by a very inconsiderable force. From official documents, it appears that the place was defended by 500 regular troops, with a very large proportion of officers and Europeans, aided by the marine department, the Dutch inhabitants and burghers, and the king of Ternate's forces, of whom 250 were in the field, and an equal number from the sultan of Tidore and the adjacent islands in alliance with the Dutch; but such were the gallantry, coolness, and precision of the British, that nothing could ultimately withstand their arms.

After a short but brilliant campaign in the month of August, Batavia, the capital of the island of Java, was taken by the British troops under lieutenant-general sir Samuel Auchmuty; the enemy's most formidable works were carried, and themselves driven from the kingdoms of Bantam and Jacatra; so that, as lord Minto observes in his despatches to the directors of the East India company, "An empire which for two centuries has contributed greatly to the power, prosperity, and grandeur of one of the principal and most respected states of Europe, has been thus wrested from the short usurpation of the French government, added to the dominions of the British crown, and converted from a seat of hostile machination and commercial competition into an augmentation of British power and prosperity. For this signal and illustrious service, Great Britain is indebted to the truly British intrepidity of as brave an army as ever did honour

to our country ; to the professional skill and spirit of their officers ; and to the wisdom, decision, and firmness, of the eminent man who directed their courage and led them to victory."

But whilst our British tars were gathering a profusion of laurels in different parts ; an unpleasant rencontre took place between one of his majesty's vessels and a ship belonging to the American government, which threatened nothing less in its consequences, than a war between the two countries.

The particulars of the engagement are thus related by captain Bingham, of the *Little Belt*. "At half-past three p. m. on the 16th of May, a strange sail, which had been previously discovered, appeared inclined to give chase, when I made the private signal, which was not answered. At half-past six, finding he gained considerably on us, and clearly discerning the stars in his broad pennant, I thought proper to bring to, and hoist the colours, that no mistake might arise, and that he might see what we were. The ship was therefore brought to, the colours hoisted, the guns double shotted, and every preparation made in case of a surprise. By his manner of steering down, he evidently wished to lay his ship in a position for raking, which I frustrated by wearing three times. On his coming within hail, about a quarter past eight, I hailed, and asked what ship it was ? He repeated my question. I again hailed, and asked what ship it was ? He again repeated my words and fired a broadside, which I immediately returned. The action then became general, and continued so for about three quarters of an hour, when he ceased firing, and appeared to be on fire about the main hatchway. I was then obliged to desist from firing, as the ship falling off no gun would bear, and I had had no aftersail to keep her to : all the rigging and sails were cut to pieces, and not a brace or bowline left. He then asked what ship this was ? and, on being told, he asked if I had struck my colours ? I answered no ; and asked what ship that was ? and as plainly as I could understand, he answered the United States frigate.

"Next morning he bore up again, and sent a boat on board with an officer and a message from commodore Rogers, to say, that he lamented the unfortunate affair which had happened ; and that had he known our force was so inferior he should not have fired at us. I asked his motive

for having fired at all ; and his reply was, that we fired the first gun at him ; but this was positively not the case. He offered me every assistance I should stand in need of, and submitted to me that I had better put into one of the ports of the United States, which I immediately declined. By the manner in which he apologized, it appeared evident, that had he fallen in with a British frigate he would certainly have brought her to action ; and what farther confirms me in that opinion is, that his guns were not only loaded with round and grape shot, but with every scrap of iron that could possibly be collected."

Such is the statement of captain Bingham, of the veracity of which there can be no doubt. Commodore Rogers, however, in *his* statement, asserts that the Little Belt fired first, and that under the circumstances in which he was placed, it was a duty incumbent on him to avenge the insult committed upon the American flag. It may also be added, that in a subsequent investigation of this subject in America, the statement of commodore Rogers was confirmed by all the witnesses whom he thought proper to bring forward.

Another event of historical importance which marked the year 1811, was the extirpation of the Mamelukes in Egypt.

This singular people had long considered Egypt as their patrimony, and their obedience to the Turkish viceroy, except when enforced by arms, had long been completely nominal. They were even carrying on an open war against Mohammed Ali, their viceroy and pacha, when the British army under general Frazer landed in Egypt. Upon the receipt of this intelligence the pacha concluded a peace with the Mamelukes, as his less dangerous enemies ; and stipulated in one of the articles of his treaty with them, that the whole corps should come and reside at Cairo. With this condition the greater part of them complied, and under the command of Sciaim Bey, fixed their residence at Gizeh, near the capital, but on the opposite side of the Nile ; and the remainder, under the command of Ibrahim Bey, remained in Upper Egypt.

About this time the Porte entertained considerable alarm on account of the rapid progress of a sect called the Wechabi, who had already obtained possession of Mecca and Medina. Jussuf, pacha of Damascus, had not been able to resist the numbers and the enthusiasm of these seceders from the

Mohammedan faith ; and Suliman, pacha of Acre, had in consequence received orders to send the head of Jussuf to Constantinople, and to assume the command of the pachalik of Damascus. Jussuf, however, fled to Cairo, where he was hospitably received by Mohammed Ali, and sheltered from the attempts of his rival ; and the Porte finding Suliman no better able than Jussuf to resist the infidels, at length ordered the pacha of Egypt to undertake the recovery of the holy cities, and promised to reward him with the governments of Acre and Damascus. This order and promise of the Porte were no sooner known to the pacha of Acre, than he conceived an ardent desire of revenge, and immediately formed a plan of joining his forces with those of the Mamelukes, and of attacking Mohammed Ali and the small remnant of his army which would be left in Egypt after the departure of the expedition against Mecca, under the command of his son. The jealousy and vigilance of the viceroy, however, proved equal to the treachery of his enemies. A servant of Sciaim Bey having been bribed to betray his master, regularly transmitted to the pacha copies of the correspondence carried on by the beys in Cairo with those in Upper Egypt, and with Suliman of Acre. The Porte also was duly informed of the designs of the conspirators, and when its final orders arrived the viceroy immediately prepared to put them in execution.

On his return from Suez to Cairo, Mohammed Ali announced the approaching completion of his preparations against Mecca ; and that on the 1st of March he should celebrate a grand festival on the occasion of investing his son with the pelisse of command, previous to the departure of the expedition ; and all the Mamelukes in Cairo were invited to honour the ceremony with their presence. The procession was to pass through the private streets of Cairo up to the citadel, where the investiture was to take place. The Turkish infantry led the way, and were followed by the Mamelukes on horseback under the command of Sciaim Bey, who was supported by two sons of the viceroy, and the Turkish cavalry followed and closed the procession. The foot-soldiers had already entered the interior of the citadel, and the Mamelukes were passing between the inner and outer wall of the fortress, along a narrow way, enclosed on both sides by high walls and ruinous buildings, when the

es at each extremity of the passage were closed. The sultan had revealed his intention to no one till this moment, when he ordered his infantry to line the walls which surrounded the Mamelukes, and to open a heavy fire upon them, though his sons were still mixed with them, and for some time exposed to the same fate.

The Mamelukes, cooped up in a narrow space, where their equestrian skill and their unrivalled dexterity in the use of the sabre were unavailing, impeded by their own numbers, encumbered by their dresses of ceremony, and surrounded on all sides by a superior force, were compelled to surrender after a feeble resistance. The wicket of the inner gate was then opened, and the Turkish soldiers dragged their victims, one by one into the court of the citadel, where they were first stripped and then beheaded. Of eight hundred Mamelukes who were enclosed within the walls none escaped; and in the course of the month eight hundred more were destroyed in the neighbouring towns and villages. The surviving beys in Upper Egypt placed themselves at the head of eight hundred Mamelukes, with a considerable body of negroes and Arabs, near the Cataracts; but a large body of troops marched against them, and it seems that they ultimately succeeded in destroying the last remains of a people who had subsisted, with varied fortunes, from the days of Saladin to the present period.

In the beginning of the year 1812, his majesty's disorder appeared almost hopeless, and the restricted regency being nearly expired, the nation looked with anxiety towards the prince of Wales; as a total change of ministers and measures was generally expected. In a letter to the duke of York however, his royal highness stated, that he had no predilections to indulge, no resentments to gratify, no objects to attain, but such as were common to the whole empire. He expressed a wish, indeed, that some of those persons with whom the early habits of his public life were formed should now constitute a part of his government; but on the refusal of lords Grey and Grenville to coalesce with certain members of the existing administration, he thought proper to retain those persons with whom their lordships were unwilling to unite.

It was but a short time, however, that the minister held his situation. On the 11th of May, as he was entering the

lobby of the House of Commons, at a quarter past five o'clock, a person of the name of Bellingham, who had placed himself at the side of the door, fired a pistol at him, the ball of which entered his left breast. Mr. Perceval uttered a faint exclamation, staggered a few paces, and fell on his face. He was immediately taken up and conveyed into the Speaker's apartments; but before he reached them the last signs of life had departed. A scene of indescribable confusion and dismay ensued, and at this moment the murderer might probably have escaped undiscovered, but, instead of attempting to leave the place, he deliberately sat down, and without hesitation avowed the horrid deed which he had perpetrated. At the close of his examination, when asked what he had to say, he replied "I admit the fact, but wish to state something in my justification. I have been denied the redress of my grievances by government; they all know who and what I am, through the secretary of state and Mr. Becket, with whom I have had frequent communication. I was accused most wrongfully by a governor-general in Russia, in a letter from Archangel to Riga, and have sought redress in vain. I am a most unfortunate man, and feel *here* (raising his hand to his breast) sufficient justification for what I have done."

On the 15th of May, Bellingham was brought to the bar of the Old Bailey; when the plea of insanity was suggested by his counsel but rejected by himself. In his defence, which occupied the attention of the court for upwards of an hour, he chiefly expatiated on the ill usage which he conceived he had experienced from government, to prove that his assassination of Mr. Perceval was an act of justice. When the jury returned a verdict of guilty, and sentence of death was pronounced, he appeared perfectly calm and collected; and at his execution, which took place on the 18th, he displayed an extraordinary degree of firmness and self-possession, and refused to the very last to express any contrition for his crime.

A message from the prince regent to parliament having recommended them to make some provision for Mr. Perceval's numerous and afflicted family, the sum of 50,000*l.* was voted for the use of the children, and 2000*l.* per annum to the widow, to be paid after her decease to such male descendant of the Right Hon. Spencer Perceval as shall be at that time his heir, for the term of his natural life.

The principal changes in the administration were, lord Liverpool as prime-minister; lord Sidmouth as secretary of state for the home department; the Earl of Harrowby, lord president of the council, and Mr. Vansittart, chancellor of the exchequer.

An alarming disposition to riot prevailed, during a great part of this year, in the hosiery district of Nottinghamshire, the populous tracts of the Cheshire and Lancashire cotton-manufactures, and that part of the West Riding of Yorkshire principally occupied by clothiers. The numbers and audacity of the rioters, the systematic plans upon which they acted, and the weapons with which many of them were provided, rendered them truly formidable to the master manufacturers, and excited the most lively apprehensions in the minds of the peaceable inhabitants. The leaders of those disturbances, however, were found to be persons in the lowest ranks of society; and after several of the most guilty had been executed, tranquillity was, in a great measure restored to the disturbed districts.

On the continent, lord Wellington was in motion at the beginning of the year. On the 8th of January he invested Ciudad Rodrigo, and on the 20th he was enabled to announce the capture of that important frontier-town. The attack was made on the evening of the 19th, in five distinct columns, and in less than an hour the assailants were in possession of the place. The garrison, who submitted on this occasion, amounted to one thousand seven hundred men, besides officers; and the fruits of the victory were a hundred and fifty-three pieces of cannon, and large quantities of military stores. To express their grateful sense of this achievement, the Spanish Cortes conferred on lord Wellington the rank of a grandee of the first class, with the title of duke of Ciudad Rodrigo. Having repaired the fortifications of the captured town, and placed it under the command of a Spanish officer, the heroic Wellington turned his attention to Badajoz, and on the 15th of March, invested it, on both sides of the Guadiana. After various heavy cannonadings, breaches were, at length, effected in the bastions of Santo Maria and Trinidad; and lord Wellington resolved to attack the place in the night of the 6th of April. Several attacks were made at once upon the different parts of the works, and the escalade of the castle was the first that succeeded; but so obstinate

was the resistance of the enemy, and so formidable the obstacles raised behind the trenches, that, after a long and sanguinary contest, the assailants were ordered to retreat. The possession of the castle being secured, however, decided the fate of the town, and the next morning the commandant surrendered with all his staff, and the whole of the garrison; which, at the commencement of the siege, consisted of five thousand men, but of that number twelve hundred had been killed and wounded, during the attack.

To effect, if possible, a division in favour of the garrison of Badajos, Marmont advanced against Ciudad Rodrigo, and kept it blockaded, whilst Soult, duke of Dalmatia, advanced from Seville into Estramadura, as far as Villa Franca; but the latter on hearing of the reduction of Badajoz retreated towards the frontiers of Andalusia. On the first intelligence of Soult's retreat, lord Wellington moved with the allied army under his command towards Castile; and having crossed the Agueda on the 13th of July, he arrived on the 18th in front of Salamanca.

After several partial battles in which sir Thomas Graham rendered his gallantry conspicuous, the grand opposing armies were approaching each other, on the 21st, on the banks of the Tormes, and, as they were moving in a confined space, they could not be long without coming to a general engagement. Lord Wellington only waited a favourable opportunity for an attack; and this he obtained in the afternoon of the 22nd, by an extension of the enemy's line to the left, in order to embrace a point then occupied by the right wing of the allies. The British commander immediately ordered an attack on the left wing of the French, which happily succeeded, as did an attack on the front, in which they were successively driven from one height to another. The resistance of the enemy was determined and obstinate; but at the approach of night, they broke and fled in the utmost confusion, and were pursued as long as they could be distinguished. At break of day the pursuit was renewed; and the cavalry of the allies having crossed the Tormes, the rear-guard of the enemy was overtaken, when the cavalry fled, leaving the infantry to their fate. Such was the battle of Salamanca, the trophies of which were said to be eleven pieces of cannon, several ammunition waggons, two eagles, and sixty colours; the prisoners consisted of one general,



three colonels, three lieutenant-colonels, one hundred and thirty officers of inferior rank, and between six and seven thousand soldiers. Marshal Marmont was also severely wounded, and four general officers were said to have been killed.

In consequence of this splendid victory, the French thought proper to raise the long continued siege of Cadiz, and the conduct of lord Wellington obtained such universal approbation in Spain, that he was declared commander-in-chief of the Spanish armies.

During these operations in the Peninsula, the relations between England and America had assumed a more hostile complexion, and, after much discussion in conference, it was resolved to settle the existing differences by the sword.

The conquest of Canada was to be attempted, and troops were immediately marched in that direction; but all the first skirmishes on the part of the Americans proved unsuccessful. In August the British took possession of fort Detroit, and general Hull surrendered himself and his army prisoners of war.

On the 13th of October major-general Brook, to whom general Hull had surrendered, was killed at Queen's town on the Niagara frontier; but the enemy were defeated, and general Wadsworth, with nine hundred troops, surrendered to major-general Sheaffe, on whom the command had devolved.

By sea, however, the Americans were more successful. In the beginning of September the *Guerriere* frigate, captain Dacres, was taken by the *Constitution*, captain Hull: on the 28th of October, the *Macedonian*, captain Carden, was taken by the United States, commodore Decatur; and on the 29th of December, the *Java*, captain Lambert, was captured by the *Constitution*, commodore Bainbridge. Each of the British vessels was defended till they were in such a state that the enemy thought proper to set fire to the *Guerriere* and the *Java* immediately after the action; and the *Macedonian* was a mere wreck when she surrendered.

We must now turn our attention to the campaign in the north of Europe, which is, in fact, the prominent feature in the military annals of the year 1812.

Bonaparte, on his return from his tour in the Netherlands, at the latter end of the preceding year, evidently meditated

a grand stroke for the purpose of terminating his differences with the court of Russia, in a manner conformable to that continental system which he had hitherto pursued ; and the success of his arms in the Peninsula was to be considered as a secondary object till the other was obtained. The first measure on which he resolved was the occupation of Swedish Pomerania ; and accordingly, twenty thousand French troops, under the command of general Friant, entered that province, in the month of February ; and early in the spring, the French Army, united to that of the confederation of the Rhine, was in march toward the frontiers of Poland. On the 7th of May Bonaparte quitted Paris, accompanied by his wife and the prince of Neufchatel ; and on the 16th they arrived at Dresden, where they had an interview with the emperor and empress of Austria. By this time the emperor Alexander had arrived at Wilna, where was Barclay de Tolly, general-in-chief of the first army of the west. On the 11th of June, Davoust had his head-quarters at Königsberg, where he was joined by the Corsican despot ; and after a long and triumphant march, arrived at Smolensko. That city being reduced by the French after an obstinate conflict, in which a considerable portion of the place was destroyed by fire, the Russians retreated towards Moscow, destroying almost every thing in their progress. On the 7th of September they were attacked by the French on the heights of Borodino, and defeated in a most sanguinary engagement. On the 14th Bonaparte entered Moscow, which the Russians had evacuated, after setting it on fire in several places, which occasioned the destruction of three-fourths of the city. On this occasion about three hundred persons were arrested, and shot, by order of the invader, under the title of incendiaries. The Russian forces, however, still maintained their position in the neighbourhood, and not only prevented the enemy from drawing any supplies from the country, but on the 18th of October attacked and defeated a division of the army under Murat.

The French finding it impossible to remain at Moscow during the winter, were obliged to withdraw from that ancient capital, which on the 22nd, was re-entered by the Russian army. The subsequent retreat of the enemy was truly disastrous. Bonaparte had determined to retire by the way of Kalouga, taking a more southerly course than that

which he had pursued in his advance: but the disposition which the Russian general Kutusoff had made, obliged him to change his route.

On the 9th of November he fixed his head-quarters at Smolensko, which he quitted on the 13th, leaving marshal Ney to blow up the ramparts. On the 16th and 17th Davoust and Ney were both defeated on the banks of the Dnieper, near Krasnoe. Bonaparte, having succeeded in crossing the Berezina, continued his retreat towards Wilna, and on the 5th of December disgracefully quitted his suffering troops, and set off in disguise to Paris, having previously given the command of the army to Murat. In this retreat the French were not only dreadfully annoyed by the Russians, but such was the severity of the weather, that in a few days, as Bonaparte himself acknowledged, more than thirty thousand horses perished; and to form a body-guard for himself of six hundred men, he was obliged to collect those officers who had still a horse remaining; generals performing the functions of captains, and colonels those of subalterns in this cohort.

During the absence of the Corsican usurper, an attempt was made to subvert his power at Paris. Early in the morning of October the 23rd, the ex-generals, Mallet, Lehorie, and Guidal, having drawn up a fictitious *senatus consultum*, went to the barracks occupied by the first division of the national guards and the dragoons of Paris; and having read a proclamation, announcing the pretended death of the emperor, ordered the troops in the name of the regent to follow them. They accordingly suffered themselves to be led to different posts, where they relieved the guards. The conspirators then arrested the minister and the prefect of the police, and sent them to prison, under an escort of three hundred men. In the mean time another division was marched to the house of general Hulin, the commandant of Paris, who, on hesitating to resign his authority, was shot in the neck. Mallet then proceeded to arrest the chief of the *état-major* of Paris; but this person happening to have several officers in his apartment, proved too strong for the conspirator and arrested him. The troops, being convinced that an artifice had been practised upon them, laid down their arms; and the whole of the conspirators, amounting to about twenty officers and sub-officers, besides the three

ex-generals, were, seized and committed to prison. These were tried by a military commission, when the ex-generals and eleven others were adjudged to die, and the rest were acquitted.

The disasters which had befallen the French in Russia, led to a defection of the Prussian troops under general D'Yorck, who entered into a convention with count Witgenstein, as soon as the reduction of the French force enabled him to do it with safety, and this convention was ultimately followed by an alliance between the king of Prussia and the emperor of Russia.

On the 14th of January, 1813, a letter was sent by the princess of Wales to the prince-regent, complaining of the restrictions laid upon her intercourse with her daughter, and the indirect imputation thus attached to her character. No answer being returned, her royal highness thought proper to publish her letter in the newspapers, that an apparent acquiescence on her part might not expose her to the suspicion of conscious guilt.

The business was then laid before certain members of the privy-council, and after some days they gave, as their opinion, that under all the existing circumstances, it was highly proper that the intercourse between her royal highness the princess of Wales and the princess Charlotte should continue to be subject to regulation and restraint. On the reception of this report her royal highness appealed to the house of commons, through the medium of the speaker, earnestly requesting that the whole of her conduct since her arrival in England, might undergo a fair and open trial before judges known to the constitution. The house did not think fit to interfere in this delicate business; but in the conversation that took place on it, the innocence of the princess was decidedly avowed. The lord-mayor, aldermen and livery of London, also voted an address of congratulation to her royal highness on the annihilation of a conspiracy against her honour and life; which was presented to her at Kensington palace, and the voice of the nation was unanimously in her favour.

Whilst the Russian forces, already recovered from their fatigues, and abundantly furnished with recruits and reinforcements, were enabled to occupy at leisure what positions they chose, strengthened by the position of the Prussian

forces, and promised by Bernadotte a large army of Swedes, Bonaparte was making preparations for the commencement of a fresh campaign. Accordingly having appointed the empress Louisa regent during his absence, and having formally declared the king of Rome his successor, he left Paris on the 15th of April, to join his army; and though in several battles the allies were uniformly victorious, they were obliged to retire, by the superior number of his forces. The battle of Lunenburg, on the 2nd of April, may be considered as the commencement of this campaign. General Morand had advanced thither to attack baron Van Tettenborn, but generals Domberg, Tehernichef, and Benkendorf being come up with their respective corps, the French were so completely defeated that it is said, not a man escaped, and that 3000 persons were made prisoners, with three colours and twelve pieces of cannon. The same day the Prussian general Von Borstell, who had been sent to surround Magdeburg, on the right bank of the Elbe, was attacked by Beauharnois, and obliged to fall back; but on the arrival of general Witgenstein, a general engagement ensued, and the French were defeated, with the loss of 2000 killed and wounded, and nearly 1000 prisoners.

On the 2nd of May, a battle was fought at Lutzen, where the French were commanded by Bonaparte in person, and the allies by general Winzingerode; between 20 and 30,000 men were sacrificed on this occasion, and the victory was claimed by each party. On the 19th the armies were engaged at Wurtschen; on the 20th and 21st at Bautzen; and on the 22nd at Reitzenbach; and from the acknowledgment of the parties themselves, the killed and wounded in these actions were not less than 40,000 men. On the 1st of June, a suspension of arms took place, at the suggestion of the emperor of Austria, and on the 4th an armistice was signed, to continue till the 20th of July. This was afterwards extended till the middle of August; but the haughty and insolent behaviour of Bonaparte rendered abortive all attempts of a conciliatory nature, and finally induced his father-in-law to unite his forces to those of the allies.

Hostilities recommenced on the 17th of August; and Bonaparte resolved to make an immediate attack upon the capital of Bohemia; but when he had arrived within twelve leagues of the city, he received intelligence that some of his

troops in Silesia were exposed to imminent danger, in consequence of the advance of the Russian and Prussian forces from Breslau. He was, therefore, obliged to hasten to their relief; and on the 21st he succeeded in driving his enemies from the line of the Bohr. Scarcely, however, had he done this, when he was informed that the allies had marched against Dresden, in order to cut him off from the Elbe. When he received this alarming news, he was 120 miles distant from Dresden; this distance, however, he marched, with a strong body of troops, in four days, amidst torrents of rain, and in the most tempestuous weather, and arrived a few hours before the allies appeared in sight. The subsequent battle on the 26th. was obstinately contested; but the allies were eventually obliged to retreat, and general Moreau, who had come from America to assist in the deliverance of Europe, received a wound which occasioned his death.

During the month of September Bonaparte made several attacks on the allied armies, but victory no longer crowned his exertions. General Vandamme was defeated and taken prisoner, shortly after the battle of Dresden. Ney and Oudinot were both defeated by the crown prince of Sweden, and the Corsican tyrant was harassed beyond example; for when he was engaged with the grand army in Bohemia, the Silesian army advanced upon Dresden; and when he returned to repulse the Silesian army, the grand army returned.

Perceiving, at length, that the forces of the allies were rapidly accumulating, and threatening his rear, whilst his own supplies were intercepted, and his communications gradually cut off, Bonaparte retired from Dresden on the 7th of October, in the direction of Leipsic, leaving a garrison in the city, and taking the court of Saxony with him. The following day the king of Bavaria deserted him, and joined the allies, who were now uniting their three armies against the common foe.

On the 16th marshal Ney was defeated by the gallant Blucher, with whom he came in contact on his march. The same day Bonaparte made a furious attack upon the centre of the grand army near Leipsic, but gained no advantage. The three armies of the allies were now in communication with each other; and on the 18th a general engagement

took place, in which the usurper was defeated with prodigious loss, and narrowly escaped being made prisoner; as he quitted Leipsic only two hours before the conquerors marched into it. The allied sovereigns entered the marketplace in triumph; the court of Saxony were taken prisoners; and of the French force of 400,000 men, with which the campaign was commenced, not more than 90,000 escaped beyond the Rhine. The minor states of Germany now thought proper to join the grand alliance; the confederation of the Rhine was completely broken up; the continental system was dissolved; and the fortresses garrisoned by French troops were successively compelled to surrender.

During the absence of the French troops a revolution was effected in Holland, equally ominous to the domination of Bonaparte, and auspicious to the cause of political freedom. Nothing could be more repugnant to the manners and sentiments of the natives of that country, or more prejudicial to their commercial interests than their annexation to the French empire; and though they were awed into submission, the majority of the nation contemplated their subjugation with mingled sentiments of indignation and abhorrence. In the month of February a conspiracy was discovered at Amsterdam, for the purpose of subverting the existing government; but the apprehension and punishment of the conspirators suppressed the project in its infancy. At length, on the approach of the allied troops toward the Dutch frontier, the people of Amsterdam, as if influenced by one burst of public feeling, rose in a body, and with the old rallying cry of "*Oranje boven*," universally displayed the Orange colours, and proclaimed the sovereignty of that illustrious house. The populace expressed their indignation against the French by burning the watch-houses of their custom-house officers, and three of their vessels. One of the officers was also killed in the affray; but this was the only life lost on the occasion. The example of Amsterdam was soon followed by the other principal towns in Holland; and on the 21st of November, a deputation arrived in London to announce the events which had taken place, and to entreat the prince of Orange to hasten to the assistance of his countrymen. A cabinet-council was accordingly held, and it was determined that the Dutch patriots should be immediately assisted with all the succours that could be conveniently furnished.

On the 30th of the same month, the prince of Orange landed at Scheveling, and thence proceeded to the Hague, where he was solicited to assume the reins of government, not under the ancient title of stadtholder, but as sovereign prince of the Netherlands.

The revulsion of the war in Germany was sensibly felt by the French armies in the Peninsula ; as about 1200 officers, 600 serjeants and corporals, and 16,000 privates had been drafted into France, during the months of February and March. Some conscripts, indeed, had been sent out to supply their places, but the change had materially diminished their strength ; and but little occurred, at this period, besides movements of troops.

On the 11th of April, a division of the Spanish army, commanded by Don Fernando Millares, was attacked by Suchet ; who compelled them to retreat, and made himself master of the castle of Villena, garrisoned by about 2000 men. The next day the victors made an attack upon the allied troops under general Murray, who retired, defending every step of the ground, till night separated the combatants. On the 13th the French were defeated in an engagement near Vrai, and were compelled to retreat ; first to Villena, and afterwards to Fuente la Higuera. After remaining some time inactive at Alicant, sir John Murray embarked his forces with a Spanish division and a complete train of besieging artillery ; and on the 4th of June, he landed in the neighbourhood of Tarragona, with 13,000 foot, and some hundreds of cavalry. On the 7th, fort San Felipe, a station of considerable importance, surrendered to a detachment under lieutenant-colonel Prevost ; but on the 12th Sir John, having heard that Suchet was approaching, abandoned the siege of Tarragona in such haste, that he did not even stay to take his cannon with him.

On the 2nd of June, lord Wellington being at Tors, on the river Douro, colonel Grant had a brilliant cavalry affair with the rear of the enemy ; and the next day his lordship moved his right wing, under general Hill, across the Douro ; and united the Gallician army under general Giron, to his left wing, under general Graham. The French united armies of Portugal and the north, had now been joined by their army of the centre, under marshal Jourdan ; but they continued to retreat towards the Ebro, which general Graham



passed so as to place himself on their flank. On the 18th one French division attacked general Graham at Osma, and another engaged baron D'Alten's brigade at St. Millan; but both were completely repulsed.

On the 19th the French rear-guard was driven back toward Vittoria; and on the 21st a general engagement took place, in which the French forces, commanded by Joseph Bonaparte, having marshal Jourdan as his major-general, were so completely defeated, that they were under the necessity of abandoning all their artillery, ammunition, baggage, and cattle. One hundred and fifty-one pieces of cannon, and 415 ammunition-waggon were taken on the field; and among the trophies was the baton of marshal Jourdan. The loss of the allies was about 700 killed and 4000 wounded, but that of the French was considerably greater.

On the 23rd generals Graham and Longa were detached in pursuit of the enemy; and on the 25th obtained possession of Tolosa, after an obstinate resistance. On the 26th sir Rowland Hill invested Pampeluna; and on the 12th of July St. Sebastian was besieged by general Graham. A fortified outpost of the latter place was carried by storm on the 17th; and on the 25th an assault was made on the body of the place; but the breaches were so completely commanded by the fire of the garrison, that the British troops were obliged to retreat, with the loss of 1270 men.

On the 1st of July marshal Soult was sent from Germany, to assume the command of the French army that had been driven out of Spain; and on the 24th he was leading his forces through the passes of the western Pyrenees. The following day the two armies were engaged, and much severe fighting followed, till the 2nd of August, when this part of Spain was again delivered from the presence of the enemy.

The fall of St. Sebastian's was the most important event of the Spanish campaign. The commander-in-chief having directed sir Thomas Graham to attack and form a lodgement on the breach, which now extended to a large surface of the left of the fortifications; the assault was commenced in the forenoon of the 31st of August, by a combined column of British and Portuguese. The external appearance of the breach, however, proved deceptive; for when

the column, after being exposed to a heavy fire of shot and shells, arrived at the foot of the wall, they found a perpendicular scarp of twenty feet to the level of the street, leaving only one accessible point, formed by the breaching of the end and front of the curtain, and which admitted an entrance only by single files. In this situation the assailants made several desperate exertions to gain an entrance, but not a man survived the attempt to mount the narrow ridge of the curtain. In this posture of affairs sir Thomas adopted the perilous expedient of turning his guns against the curtain, though the shot passed only a few feet over the heads of his men, at the foot of the breach. In the mean time a Portuguese brigade was ordered to ford the river near its mouth, and attack the small breach to the right of the great one. The success of this manœuvre, united to the effect of the batteries upon the curtain, at length gave an opportunity for the troops to establish themselves on the narrow pass, after a most desperate assault of more than two hours; and in an hour more the defenders were driven from all their complicated works, and retired with great loss to the castle, leaving the town in full possession of the allies. This success was rendered complete on the 18th of September, by the surrender of the castle; when the garrison, amounting to about 1800 men, remained prisoners of war, and all the ordnance, stores, &c. were the prize of victory.

The great event of lord Wellington's carrying the war into France took place on the 7th of October; and the fall of the strong fortress of Pampeluna, the capital of Navarre, completed the liberation of that part of Spain from the French arms.

On the 25th of January, 1814, Bonaparte left Paris, once more, to take the command of his armies against the allies, who had now penetrated into France in various directions. He had been preceded on the 10th by Berthier; and on the 24th he, a second time, confided the regency, during his absence, to his wife; on which occasion she took the oath before him, in a council of the French princes grand dignitaries, cabinet-ministers, and ministers of state.

To relate the particulars of the engagements which took place subsequently to this period, would be incompatible with the design of this work. Suffice it, therefore, to say, that the conflicts on both sides were obstinately contested,

though attended with various success. But whilst the Corsican was employed against the allies, the Bourbon standard was hoisted in France, and several of the French towns and villages began to resound with acclamations of *Vive le Roi Louis XVIII! Vivent les Bourbons!* On the 12th of March, sir William Beresford, with the division under his command, entered Bourdeaux, the second city in France for size, wealth, and population, and received a most cordial welcome. The mayor even went out to meet him. Attended by the constituted authorities, the principal inhabitants, and an immense multitude, in carriages, on horseback, and on foot. In his capacity of mayor, he was decorated with the insignia of Bonaparte's government; but on his approaching marshal Beresford, he tore them in pieces, and trampled them underfoot. This conduct was applauded by universal acclamations; and the marshal was solemnly conducted into the city, in which were found eighty-four pieces of cannon, and a hundred boxes of secreted arms.

On the 23rd, after much skirmishing with the allies, marshal Mortier and Marmont retired into the French capital, which had for some time expected the approach of the invading armies. The garrison consisted of a part of general Gerard's corps, under general Compans, and a force of about 8000 regulars, and 30,000 national guards, under general Hulin, the commandant of the city. With this force, the French, under Joseph Bonaparte, took up a position on the heights of Belleville. The attacks of the allies, however, were crowned with complete success; the heights of Belleville were carried in the most gallant manner by the Prussian guards; the village of Pantin was carried at the point of the bayonet; and the heroic Blucher commenced his attack upon Montmartre; when a flag of truce was sent by marshal Marmont, expressing a wish to receive any communications that might have been intended for him under a flag of truce which had been previously refused admittance. He also proposed an armistice for four hours, on condition of his quitting every position without the barriers of Paris. These terms were accepted, and the city shortly afterwards surrendered to the allied sovereigns, whose entrance and reception are thus described by sir Charles Stewart, in one of his despatches to lord Castle-reagh.

"The cavalry under his imperial highness the grand archduke Constantine, and the guards of all the different allied forces, were formed in columns, early in the morning, on the road from Bondy to Paris. The emperor of Russia, with all his staff, his generals and their suites, proceeded to Pantin, where the king of Prussia joined him with a similar *cortège*. These sovereigns, surrounded by all the princes in the army, together with the prince field-marshal, and the Austrian *état-major*, passed through the Fauxbourg St. Martin, and entered the barrier of Paris about eleven o'clock, the Cossacks of the guard forming the advance of the march. Already was the crowd so enormous, as well as the acclamations so great, that it was difficult to move forward; but before the monarchs reached the Porte de St. Martin, to turn on the Boulevards, there was a moral impossibility of proceeding; all Paris seemed to be assembled and concentrated in one spot; one spring evidently directed all their movements; they thronged in such numbers round the emperor and the king, that with all their condescending and gracious familiarity, extending their hands on all sides, it was in vain to attempt to satisfy the populace. They were positively eaten up amidst the cries of "*Vive l'Empereur Alexandre,—Vive le Roi de Prusse,—Vivent nos libérateurs.*" Nor did the air alone resound with these peals; for with louder acclamations, if possible, they were mingled with those of "*Vive Louis XVIII.—Vivent les Bourbons.*" The white cockade appeared very generally; many of the national guards whom I saw wore them. The clamorous applause of the multitude was seconded by similar demonstrations from all the houses; and handkerchiefs, as well as the fair hands that waved them, seemed in continued requisition. In short to have an idea of such a manifestation of elastic feeling, as Paris displayed, it must have been witnessed. The sovereigns halted in the Champs Elysées, where the troops defiled before them in the most admirable order, and the head-quarters were established at Paris.

A declaration on the part of the allied sovereigns having been published, stating their determination to treat no more with Bonaparte or any of his family, and promising, at the same time to recognise the constitution which the French nation should choose for itself; the senate assembled, and adopted a provisional government, at the head of which was

M. Talleyrand, prince of Benevento. At a subsequent sitting, they declared that Napoleon and his family had forfeited all right to the throne, and that the army and the nation were consequently absolved from their oaths of allegiance. With respect to the choice of their future sovereign considerable difference of opinion existed; but it was finally determined to recall the head of the house of Bourbon to the hereditary throne of St. Louis.

As soon as the emperor Alexander was informed of this decision, he proposed, in the name of the allied sovereigns, that Napoleon Bonaparte should choose a place of retreat for himself and his family; and the duke of Vicenza was directed to carry this proposition to him. On the 1st of April, the Corsican reviewed the troops at Fontainebleau, which he seemed to consider as his own; and though the marshals and generals who had learned the resolutions of the senate, conversed together on the subject loud enough to be overheard, he appeared to pay no attention to what they said. When the review was over, marshal Ney followed him into the palace, and asked if he was informed of the great revolution which had occurred at Paris. He replied, with an air of assumed composure, that he knew nothing of it, though he was doubtless well acquainted with all the particulars. Marshal Ney then gave him the Paris papers, which he seemed to read with great attention. After some reflection he signed an abdication in favour of his son, and sent it to the provisional government. This proposition, however, was peremptorily rejected: and on the 6th of April he signed a paper containing a formal renunciation, for himself and his heirs, of the throne of France and Italy. A handsome revenue was, accordingly, decreed to him, and the isle of Elba fixed as the place of his retreat. An extensive principality was settled on his wife, in which she was to be succeeded by her son, the late king of Rome, who was also to be allowed the title of prince of Parma.

The overthrow of the tyrant produced the most lively sensations in England, and the inhabitants of London evinced their feelings on the occasion by illuminations, for three successive nights, which exceeded in brilliancy and magnificence those on any former occasion.

The 20th of April was a day of peculiar interest to the metropolis. London had seen a French monarch within its

walls before ; but it was reserved for this auspicious day to exhibit one under circumstances of greater glory to her than if he had come a captive ;—a monarch of France returning in triumph to his own land, after being sheltered by British fortitude, and restored by British sacrifices for the repose of the world.

On the 23rd his most Christian majesty quitted London ; and after a journey and a voyage which resembled a public triumph, he made his entrance into Paris on the 3rd of May. The day was perfectly beautiful, and the weather calm and serene. Paris appeared like one vast promenade, abandoned, without disorder, to all the demonstrations of public satisfaction and popular joy. At night the city was completely illuminated, and a most brilliant display of fireworks went off at the bridge of Louis XVI.

On the 6th of June the emperor of Russia, and the king of Prussia, with generals Blucher, D'Yorck, and Bulow, Count Platoff, and several other distinguished characters landed at Dover ; and the next morning set out on their journey to London, where their reception was not inferior to that which Louis XVIII. had so recently experienced. They were repeatedly entertained by the Prince-Regent with equal hospitality and magnificence ; and the civic fête given at their visit to Guildhall was admirably adapted to impress them with suitable ideas of the opulence and splendour of the British metropolis, whilst it demonstrated the respect and affection which had been inspired by their strenuous and successful exertions for the emancipation of Europe. The whole period of their residence in London, was in fact, a sort of jubilee ; wherever they appeared they were greeted with unbounded applause ; and when they returned to the continent, thousands of prayers for their health and prosperity mingled with the breeze which wafted them across the bosom of the ocean.

The Gazette extraordinary of June 2nd, announced that Mr. Planta had arrived at the foreign-office, on the preceding night, from Paris, with the definitive treaty of peace and amity between his Britannic majesty and the king of France : and on the 20th the ceremony of the proclamation of peace took place, with all its ancient and customary solemnities.

The termination of the long and sanguinary warfare in

which the United Kingdom had been engaged against France and her allies, demanded some expression of national gratitude to the Supreme Disposer of all events. Accordingly the 7th of July was appointed, by proclamation, to be observed as a day of general thanksgiving; and the Prince Regent was pleased, for the greater solemnity of the day, to go in person to the cathedral church of St. Paul, accompanied by their royal highnesses, the dukes of York, Kent, Sussex and Cambridge, and his highness the duke of Gloucester; and attended by both houses of parliament, the great officers of state, the judges, and other public officers.

Monday, the 1st of August, being the centenary of the accession of the house of Brunswick to the throne of England and the anniversary of the memorable victory of the Nile, was selected as the day for a national jubilee in celebration of the peace. On this occasion a grand fair was held in the park, and in the evening the public were entertained with a mimic naval engagement on the Serpentine river, and with an illumination, and a display of fireworks more magnificent than had ever been witnessed in this country.

The close of the year 1814 was marked by the termination of the war, in which Great Britain had been engaged with the United States of America; the preliminaries of peace having been signed by the commissioners at Ghent, on the 24th of December, and ratified, a few days afterward, by his royal highness the Prince Regent.

It was now supposed that Europe would enjoy many years of uninterrupted peace, and that the horrors of war would be succeeded by the augmentation of commerce, the improvement of arts and manufactures, and the wide diffusion of happiness and contentment. Such conjectures, however, were unfortunately ill-founded. The restless spirit of Bonaparte meditated, in his seclusion at Elba, the recovery of a sceptre which had so recently been wrested from his unhallowed hand;—his friends and adherents in France, who were too numerous even in the court, engaged to prepare the way for his return; and the demon of discord already triumphed in the anticipation of new revolutions, and a fresh effusion of human blood.

A. D. During the temporary absence from Elba of colonel  
1815. Campbell, the British commissioner, who had gone  
to Florence, Bonaparte sailed from Porto Ferrajo, on

the 26th of February, on board a brig, which was followed by four smaller vessels, carrying about eleven hundred men, consisting of a small body of Frenchmen, united with a motley assemblage of Poles, Corsicans, Neapolitans, and Elbese. On the 1st of March the men were landed near Cannes, in the Gulf of Juan, and the same evening, the mayor received orders to provide three thousand rations. Antibes was also summoned in the name of Bonaparte; but those who presented themselves to the commandant on this occasion were disarmed and arrested. On the 2nd the Corsican put his little army in march, passing the town of Grasse without attempting to enter it, and in the course of the three following days, he proceeded across the mountains to Grenoble, a garrison town, and military *depôt*, which was under the command of general Marchand. Aware of the partiality of the military towards him, Bonaparte on approaching the town threw open his bosom and exclaimed, "Soldiers, you have been told that I am afraid of death—here is my bosom, fire into it, if you think proper." This appeal was immediately answered by shouts of *Vive l'Empereur!* and the troops who ought to have arrested or exterminated the invader, perfidiously arranged themselves under his banners.

Bonaparte having obtained considerable supplies at Grenoble, proceeded under an escort of six hundred cavalry to Lyons, a city containing a population of about 110,000 souls. Here the inhabitants appeared disposed to support the cause of the legitimate sovereign, and they received Monsieur, the king's brother, the duke of Orleans, marshal Macdonald, and general St. Cyr, on their arrival from Paris, very favourably. The officers of the garrison, however, avowed their determination of joining Bonaparte, and the troops uttered loud and repeated shouts of *Vive Napoleon!* Monsieur, therefore, quitted Lyons on the 8th, followed by marshal Macdonald and the prefect of the department; whilst the duke of Orleans hastened to inform the king of the general defection of the military.

Marshal Ney, whose perfidy will be remembered and abhorred as long as his name survives in the page of history, gave the strongest assurances to his sovereign, not only that the rebel army should be attacked, but that their leader should be brought in *an iron cage* to Paris. No sooner,



however, had he joined his troops, than he addressed a proclamation to them, describing the Bourbons as unworthy of the throne, and urging them to join the invader. He then communicated to the court a declaration signed by the whole army under his command, in which they stated that they would not fight for Louis XVIII., but that they would shed all their blood for *Napoleon the Great!*

On the 19th Bonaparte reached and occupied Fontainebleau, without the least opposition, having with him about fifteen thousand veteran troops; whilst other divisions were following him, and advancing to support his right and left flanks on parallel lines of march. The number of national guards, volunteers, and other troops, collected at Melun, to stop his farther progress, was about 100,000 men; and on those the hopes of the Bourbon family rested, as they seemed truly devoted to the cause of the king, and anxious to meet and repel his enemy.

At an early hour in the morning of the 20th, preparations were made for an engagement, which was expected to decide the fate of France. The royal army was drawn up in three lines, the intervals and the flanks being armed with batteries, while the centre occupied the road leading to Paris. The ground from Fontainebleau to Melun is a continual declivity; so that, on emerging from the forest, the spectator has a clear view of the country before him; whilst those below can easily discern whatever appears on the eminence. An awful silence, broken only occasionally by peals of martial music, or by the voices of the commanders, pervaded the king's army. All was anxious expectation; the chiefs feeling that one moment might subvert the throne, and the troops perhaps secretly awed at the idea of meeting in arms the man to whom they had been in the habit of yielding the most servile obedience. On the side of Fontainebleau no sound as of an army advancing to battle, was heard. At length a light trampling of horses became audible, and an open carriage, escorted by a few hussars and dragoons appeared on the skirts of the forest, and drove down the hills with the rapidity of lightning, till it reached the advanced posts. Cries of *Vive l'Empereur!* immediately burst from the astonished soldiery, and exclamations of *Napoleon! Napoleon the Great!* spread from rank to rank; for Bonaparte uncovered, with Bertrand on his right hand, and

Drouet on his left, appeared in the carriage, and continued his course, waving his hand and opening his arms to the troops, whom he hailed, as "his friends, his companions in arms, whose honour, whose glory, and whose country he came to restore." All discipline was now disobeyed, and insulted; the commanders took to flight, and the acclamations of the traitorous soldiers rent the air. At this juncture Bonaparte's guard descended the hill,—the imperial march was played,—the eagles were once more exhibited,—and those who were to have met in deadly hostility embraced as brothers, and joined in universal shouts. Thus was Paris thrown open once more to the unprincipled Corsican, who arrived at the Thuilleries, about eight o'clock in the evening; the unfortunate king having previously set out for Lisle, whence he was afterwards obliged to remove to Ghent.

Bonaparte now expected, by a recurrence to his former arts, to establish himself on the throne of France; but his hopes and views on this subject proved fallacious. No sooner were the particulars of his return known to the allied sovereigns, than they issued a declaration, in which they proclaimed him a traitor and an outlaw; and this was soon followed by a new treaty, engaging to act in concert against him with all their powers. Bonaparte perceived the gathering storm which menaced him; and every possible exertion was made on his part, to put his armies into a formidable state, and to rouse the inhabitants of France to support his government. He was resolved to attack his enemies, without waiting for an invasion of his territories; and by dashing into Belgium, he expected to gain a victory which would effectually recover his military reputation, and either distract or paralyze his opponents,

In pursuance of this resolution, after giving to the French a new constitution, and nominating generals Sebastiani, Grenier, Beaumont, and Campano, to the command of Paris, he set out for Soissons on the 11th of June, and on the 13th he reached Avesnes, where he seems to have contemplated an immediate attack on the allies; as he issued an order of the day reminding his troops that the 14th was the anniversary of Marengo and Friedland; and that "to every Frenchman who had a heart, the moment was arrived to conquer or perish."

With this appeal to their passions, he put his army in

motion. The Prussian posts were established on the Sambre. These he attacked early in the morning of the 15th, and in the course of the day, he drove them from the river, and made himself master of the ground from Thuin to Fleurus, a distance of about 16 miles on the Namur road; whilst on the Brussels road, he forced back a Belgian brigade to Quatre Bras, about 12 miles from the river. The Belgians being afterwards reinforced, regained part of the ground they had lost, but at the close of the day the advantage evidently rested with Bonaparte, who established his head-quarters at Charleroi.

Intelligence of these events was not brought to the duke of Wellington, at Brussels, till the evening; when he instantly put his troops in motion. Sir T. Picton's division, with the duke of Brunswick's corps, and the Nassau contingent, arrived at Quatre Bras, about half-past two in the afternoon of the 16th, when they were finally attacked by the corps of D'Erlon and Reille, and a cavalry corps under Kellerman, and the gallant duke of Brunswick was slain. The Prussians, at the same time, were attacked in their position near Ligny; and, after a severe contest which lasted till night, both the Prussians and British thought proper to fall back upon their reinforcements; the former about 14 miles to Wavre, the latter about the same distance to Waterloo; thus keeping up their communication, and being ready either to support each other, or to unite in pursuit of the enemy, as circumstances might require.

The 17th passed without any occurrence of importance; but the following day was expected to prove decisive, and that expectation was realized. The whole weight of the French force, with the exception of Vandamme's corps, was thrown upon the duke of Wellington's army, whose line was within about 15 miles of Brussels, crossing the high roads to that city from Charleroi and Neveles, a little before their junction.

The battle began about ten o'clock in the morning, with a furious attack on a post occupied by the British in front of their right. This was supported by a tremendous cannonade upon their whole line, and with repeated attacks of infantry and cavalry until seven in the evening, when a desperate attempt was made to force their left; but in this the French, after a severe contest, were defeated, and compelled to

retreat in great disorder. At this critical juncture the heroic Wellington advanced his whole line of infantry, supported by cavalry and artillery, against the enemy, who was unable to resist the attack. The first line was driven back on the second, and the second line was almost immediately broken. The French were now thrown into such complete confusion that their artillery, baggage, and every thing was abandoned; and the perseverance of the British general and soldiers was crowned with success, so much the more precious, as it had long remained in a state of the most awful suspense.

On this occasion Bonaparte brought 130,000 men into the field, and these fought with greater desperation than in any former engagement; but after their rout, they became more completely broken than ever, threw away their arms by whole regiments, and, in a word, were wholly disengaged and dispersed.

General Bulow, having judiciously placed himself on the enemy's flank, pursued them with 16 regiments of Prussian cavalry the whole of the night, so that the roads were literally covered with the dead and dying, with arms, baggage, &c. Bonaparte's travelling carriage, plate and papers fell into the hands of the conquerors; and 300 cannon, and about 14,000 prisoners were the fruits of this splendid victory. The loss of the French in killed and wounded was estimated at 50,000 men, and that of the allies exceeded 30,000.

After witnessing the irretrievable discomfiture of his troops, Bonaparte retreated with precipitation to Paris, where he arrived at eleven o'clock on the night of the 20th; and the following day he stated explicitly to his ministers, that his army was no more. The assembly of representatives now declared their sitting permanent: and Napoleon was persuaded, in the course of the day, to abdicate the throne, in favour of his son. This abdication was accepted, and a complimentary message returned by the chamber; but the question with regard to the title of the young Napoleon was prudently evaded.

The remains of the French army, in the mean time, had retired upon Laon. All barriers between Waterloo and Paris seemed to disappear; and the allied troops penetrated, almost without opposition, into the very heart of France. The town of Cambray was taken by escalade, by Sir C. Colville; St. Quentin was abandoned to marshal Blucher;

and various other operations were executed with the greatest success. All these, however, were but preliminary to the occupation of the capital, by the immortal Wellington and Blücher, who in consequence of a military convention, occupied the barriers of Paris on the 6th of July, and on the 8th they escorted the king to the palace of his ancestors.

The ex-emperor, on quitting Paris after his abdication, retired to Rochefort, with an intention of sailing for the United States of America. But after long watching in vain for an opportunity of eluding the naval force stationed off that coast, he at length resolved to throw himself on the British for protection. Accordingly he went on board the *Bellerophon* with his suit, and addressed a letter to his royal highness the prince regent; from which it appears that he expected to find a comfortable asylum in England. In this, however, he was disappointed; the allied sovereigns having unanimously fixed for his future residence, the island of St. Helena; to which place he was subsequently removed, with the title of *general Bonaparte*, where he remained until his death, which took place May 5th, 1821.

The conclusion of peace between France and the allied powers was for some time protracted; but at length the several treaties and conventions for that purpose, were signed at Paris on the 20th of November.

The British parliament was opened, by commission, A. D. on the 1st of February; and at an early period of 1816. the session, in consequence of the presentation of numerous petitions from all parts of the country, the chancellor of the exchequer was compelled to abandon his intended renewal of the property-tax.

On the 14th of March the prince regent sent a message to both houses of parliament, announcing his design of uniting the princess Charlotte in marriage to his serene highness, the prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg; and expressing a persuasion that his faithful commons would enable him to make a suitable provision for the illustrious pair. The annual sum of 60,000*l.* was accordingly voted, for the joint lives of the prince and princess, with the stipulation, that if the heiress to the crown should die first, 50,000*l.* per annum should be continued to her husband. A bill was also passed for this naturalization, and an additional sum of 60,000*l.* was granted by way of outfit. On the 2nd of May the marriage

ceremony was performed in the state-chamber at Carlton-house ; and the most sincere congratulations were poured in from all parts of the British nation. Another royal marriage took place in the month of July, between the princess Mary and her illustrious cousin the duke of Gloucester ; who gained great popularity, on that occasion, by fixing their establishment upon such a scale as to preclude the necessity of making any application to parliament for pecuniary assistance.

The piratical depredations of the Algerines, and their inhuman massacre of some christians engaged in the coral-fishery at Bona, led to a naval expedition, in the success of which every civilized state was materially interested. Accordingly lord Exmouth set sail with a formidable armament, to revenge these outrages ; and on his arrival at Gibraltar, he sent out the *Prometheus*, Capt. Dashwood, to Algiers, for the purpose of bringing off the British consul and his family. The former, however, had been thrown into confinement by the Dey, who positively refused to liberate him, and the latter would also have been detained, had they not fortunately escaped in disguise. On the 27th of August the armament came in sight of Algiers ; and, as no answer was returned to the demands sent in by lord Exmouth with a flag of truce, orders were issued for the ships to occupy their respective stations, and a tremendous fire was opened upon the enemy, which continued without interruption, from three in the afternoon till past nine. This was answered from the several batteries on the mole, and in the elevated parts of the city ; but on the following morning the spirits of the Dey and his council appear to have been broken by the scene of desolation which surrounded them. Four large frigates of 44 guns, five corvettes of from 24 to 30 guns, the principal part of their gun and mortar boats, and a great number of small vessels of various descriptions, had been completely destroyed, together with the arsenal, magazines, and a considerable quantity of marine stores ; and had the bombardment been renewed, the city must soon have been reduced to ashes. On the receipt of a second letter, therefore, from lord Exmouth, the Dey thought proper to submit to the terms, which, on the preceding day, he had contemptuously refused to answer. These were the immediate liberation of all christian slaves without ransom ; the restitution of all the sums which had been received for

Neapolitan or Sardinian captives since the commencement of the year; a solemn declaration that, in future, all prisoners taken in war should be treated according to the usage of European nations; and that peace should be concluded with the king of the Netherlands on the same terms as with Great Britain. These terms being complied with, and the Dey having publicly asked pardon of the English consul for his imprisonment of that gentleman, lord Exmouth sailed from Algiers on the 3rd of September, with the heartfelt satisfaction of not having left an individual christian, at that place, in captivity.

But whilst the British arms were thus crowned with laurels, on the behalf of humanity abroad, the aspect of affairs at home was gloomy and perplexing. The sudden revulsion from a state of vigorous war to that of profound peace, threw some thousands of mechanics and labourers out of employment, and reduced them to absolute want. An unusual inclemency of weather also threatened a general failure in the harvest, and a consequent rise in the price of corn, occasioned much additional misery to the manufacturing poor, whose reduced wages could no longer furnish them even with the first necessary of life. Public meetings were accordingly held in different parts of the country, for discussing the causes of these evils, and proposing some remedies: and a vast number of petitions were drawn up, praying for relief from the oppressive burden of taxation, and for a radical reform in the commons house of parliament. Two assemblies of this description were held towards the close of the year, in Spafields, near Islington; and at the last of these, a riot was excited by a young fellow named Watson, who, after delivering an inflammatory harangue from a waggon, and displaying some revolutionary flags and placards, led the mob into the city, and attempted to plunder the shop of a Mr. Beckwith, a gunsmith on Snowhill. A gentleman named Platt, happening to be in the shop, remonstrated on this conduct; when the ruffian fired a pistol at him, and wounded him severely. For this offence he was taken into custody, but contrived to escape in the dreadful confusion which ensued. The rioters then proceeded through the city, and committed various outrages, but by the vigorous exertions of the magistrates, and the aid of a military force, they were finally dispersed without effecting their avowed purpose.

The prince-regent went in person to open parliament on the 25th of January ; on which occasion the discontented spirit of the lower classes exhibited itself in a scene of tumultuous riot ; and on the return of the procession from the house of lords, one of the glasses of the state-carriage was broken by some missile which appeared to have been aimed at the person of his royal highness. Early in the following month, a message was sent to both houses, relative to the state of the country ; and in consequence of the reports of the secret committees which were appointed to examine into the business, the *habeas-corpus* act was suspended for a certain period ; an act for the security of the king's person, was extended to the prince regent ; and various former acts relative to tumultuous meetings, and debating-societies were incorporated, with a view to existing exigencies.

On the 30th of May, Mr. Abbott, who during five successive parliaments had held the office of speaker in the house of commons, resigned that situation on the plea of continuous indisposition ; and was called to the upper house, with the title of lord Colchester, and an annuity of 4000*l.* per annum. A second message on the state of the country, led to a renewed suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, in the beginning of June ; and on the 12th of that month, parliament was prorogued by a speech from the prince-regent.

The trial of four persons concerned in the Spafelds riot, viz., Watson senior, Preston, Hooper, and Thistlewood, terminated in their acquittal, and demonstrated that spies of the most dangerous description had been employed by government. At Derby, however, where seductive arts had also been employed by such informers, three persons, Brandreth, Ludlam, and Turner, were found guilty of high treason, and paid the forfeit of their lives to public justice. Nine of their associates were sentenced to a milder punishment, and twelve others received a pardon.

The sanguine expectations which had been excited by the felicitous union of the prince of Saxe Cobourg with the presumptive heiress to the British throne, were suddenly and fatally blighted on the 6th of November, by the death of that beloved and amiable princess, after her delivery of a still-born child. This event was universally deplored throughout the nation, and a *general mourning*, in the true

A. D.  
1817.



sense of that expression, took place. The remains of her royal highness were deposited in the royal vault at Windsor, and the day of her funeral was characterized by a solemnity not easily to be effaced from the recollection.

In the political relations of the European powers, no change of importance took place during the year 1817. The emperor Alexander was fully occupied in strengthening his immense territories, and in making arrangements for reducing the national debt, for establishing a commercial bank, and for encouraging colonists to settle in his dominions. In Sweden the discovery of a conspiracy against the life of the crown-prince excited a great sensation, and drew forth the strongest assurances of attachment from the inhabitants of the metropolis. In Germany a free constitution was adopted by the duchy of Saxe Weimar, and subsequently placed under the guarantee of the German confederation : but in Wurtemberg the king found it necessary to dissolve the assembly of his states, in consequence of their unwillingness to confirm a constitution which he submitted to their consideration. In the Netherlands the government acquired considerable popularity by abolishing an exclusive commercial company, and throwing open the trade with China.

A. D. 1818. The imperial parliament was opened on the 25th of January, by commission ; and in the speech of the prince-regent, it was stated that treaties had been concluded with Spain and Portugal for the final abolition of the slave-trade ; that a favourable change had taken place in most departments of public industry ; and that the revenue was in a state of progressive improvement. The attention of parliament was also directed to the deficiency of places of public worship belonging to the established church, in comparison with the increasing population of the country.

A bill for repealing the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act having been carried in both houses, a number of papers relative to the state of the country were brought forward by command of the prince-regent ; and, on the 23rd of February the report of the secret committee appointed to examine them, was presented to the house of lords. This document stated that the trials and executions that had taken place had materially checked the progress of insurrection ; whilst an increase of employment had rendered the labouring classes less disposed to listen to the suggestions

of the disaffected. In London, however, and some other places, the conspirators still seemed resolved to persevere, and the committee suggested that such characters should still be watched with vigilance on the part of the government. In referring to the powers with which ministers had been invested in the preceding session, the report stated that forty-four persons had been arrested, under warrants from the secretary of state, who had never been brought to trial. Of this number seven had been discharged after their examination; thirty-seven were detained on suspicion of high-treason; one was fully committed, but subsequently set at liberty: one was released on account of indisposition, and another during his confinement. The whole of these events were stated to have been justified by existing circumstances; and the committee expressed a conviction, that, in the exercise of the powers placed in their hands, ministers had acted both discreetly and moderately; and that the vigilance of the magistrates in the perturbed districts had contributed very materially to the preservation of the public peace. A bill of indemnity, founded on this report, was introduced into parliament; and though various objections were made, it was passed in both houses, by considerable majorities.

In the month of March the sum of 1,000,000*l.* sterling was voted, to supply the deficiency of places of worship belonging to the established church: and another bill was introduced to empower the king, in council, on a solicitation to that effect, to order the division of any parish for ecclesiastical purposes, into two or more districts, each of which might have its respective church and minister; and also to authorize the erection of chapels of ease, the ministers of which might be appointed by the incumbent of the parish, subject to the approbation of the bishop of the diocese.

On the 13th of April, his royal highness the prince-regent communicated to parliament the intended marriage of the duke of Clarence with the princess of Saxe Meinengen, and that of the duke of Cambridge with the princess of Hesse. The sum of 6000*l.* per annum was accordingly voted as an addition to the income of each of the royal dukes; with the grant of the same allowance to their duchesses in the event of their surviving their husbands. And in the following month a parliamentary provision to the

certain bills that had been passed, led to an indefinite postponement of that grand national ceremony. On the afternoon, or evening, of the queen's arrival, a royal message was delivered to both houses of parliament, communicating certain papers respecting alleged misconduct of her majesty, while abroad. Next day, in the House of Commons, Mr. Brougham demanded, in the queen's name, an open trial. After much discussion, and the failure of a negotiation to prevent a public inquiry, the earl of Liverpool introduced in the House of Peers a Bill of Pains and Penalties, "for depriving Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, queen of Great Britain, of and from the style and title of queen of these realms, and of and from the rights, prerogatives, and immunities now belonging to her as queen consort." Messrs. Brougham and Denman conducted the queen's cause with great ability. From the 17th of August, the first day of the regular proceedings at the bar of the House of Peers, till the 9th of September, the pleadings of counsel, examination of witnesses, &c. on the part of the prosecution, occupied twenty-one days; and from the 3d of October to the 10th of November, thirty-four more days were consumed in the defence, and in the subsequent debates on the measure. —On the 6th of November (the anniversary of the princess Charlotte's death) the motion for the second reading of the bill of pains and penalties was carried by 123 votes against 95. On the motion for the third reading, the contents were 108; non-contents 99; majority 9. Ministers, in consequence of the smallness of this majority, then deemed it expedient to abandon the measure.

The foreign relations of England this year were not materially affected, although, upon the continent, numerous revolutionary movements occurred.—In Spain, king Ferdinand publicly took the oath to the constitution of 1812. At Cadiz, however, a large body of troops, assembled for embarkation to South America, openly revolted against the government. In Portugal, an insurrection broke out, the declared object of which was the establishment of a constitutional monarchy by the cortes or states assembled; and, finally, a provisional administration was appointed in the name of the king. At Naples, also, the king was compelled to grant a free constitutional government on the model of that established in Spain; but in 1821, the ancient autho-

rities were restored.—Early in the year, the tranquillity of France seemed to be endangered by the assassination of the duke of Berri, nephew of the king, and the only member of the immediate family of Louis XVIII. who promised to continue his line of heirs to the throne. However, in the autumn the widowed duchess was safely delivered of a son.

A. D. At this time the affairs of Russia, Turkey, and 1821. Greece excited much attention; the Russian ambassador was insulted, and obliged to leave Constantinople; an insurrection of the Greeks against the Ottoman government led to the public decapitation of the patriarch of the Greek church in the Turkish capital; and between the oppressors and the oppressed—the masters and the slaves—indiscriminate outrages and massacres were perpetrated.

On the 5th of May, Napoleon Buonaparte died at St. Helena, after six weeks' severe suffering from a cancer in the stomach.

His majesty's coronation having been definitively fixed for the 19th of July, and the queen's claim to participate in the ceremony having been negatived by the privy council, due preparations were made, and great pomp and magnificence were displayed in the pageant. The queen demanded entrance into Westminster abbey, but, not being provided with a ticket, was refused. It was supposed that the refusal preyed upon her health. On the 30th of the same month, she was seized with illness at Drury-lane theatre; and on the 7th of August she died, of an inflammation of the bowels, at Brandenburgh-house, Hammersmith. On the 14th, her funeral procession, contrary to the command of government, passed through the metropolis, on its way to Harwich; the consequence of which was a tumult, with the death of two labourers, shot by the life-guards. The remains of the queen were deposited in the family mausoleum at Brunswick. Immediately after the coronation, the king embarked for Ireland, where he was received with enthusiasm by all ranks of people; but, in consequence of the queen's decease, he hastened his return, and was again in London on the 15th of September. Having appointed the duke of York and the privy council to act as lords justices in his absence, he then paid a brief visit, as king of Hanover, to his German dominions.

A. D. In the autumn of this year the royal progresses  
 1822. were resumed. On the 11th of August, his majesty embarked at Greenwich, for Leith; and on the 15th he entered Edinburgh, and held a court in the palace of Holyrood House. The day after the departure of the king from London, the marquess of Londonderry, secretary of state for foreign affairs, terminated his life by his own hand. His firm but over-wrought mind had sunk beneath the severe pressura of public duty. This melancholy event occasioned the king's immediate return from Scotland, and led to several changes in the cabinet. The marquess of Hastings, having successfully terminated the Nepaulese war in India, had obtained his recall, and the right honourable George Canning had been appointed to succeed him as governor-general. Now, however, Mr. Canning was made secretary for foreign affairs, and lord Amherst was sent out to India.

This was a year of great agricultural distress in England. In Ireland, too, from a scarcity of provisions, and other causes, the peasantry had committed many atrocious outrages. Earl Talbot was recalled from the viceroyship, and the marquess of Wellesley appointed in his room; and, by perseverance in firm measures, tranquillity was restored.

In October, a congress of allied sovereigns assembled at Vienna, whither the duke of Wellington proceeded, as the representative of the king of England. The continental sovereigns persisting in their hostile views against Spain, England withdrew from the confederacy.

A. D. Early in 1823, the French threw a considerable  
 1823. military force into Spain; a measure which, in the ensuing year, enabled them to restore absolute power to king Ferdinand. England, though condemning the principles and acts of the French government, resolved to remain neuter. Mina, the guerilla chief, was compelled to take refuge in this country. In the meantime, the South American states, the possessions of Spain included, obtained an acknowledgment of their independence by the leading powers of Europe.

A. D. The events of this year, though not numerous,  
 1824. were of considerable importance. A war unfortunately broke out in India, between the British and

the Burmese nation; and, in the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone, sir Charles M'Carthy, the governor of that settlement, was killed in an engagement with the Ashantees. The settlement itself was endangered; but lieutenant-colonel Sutherland afterwards defeated the Africans, and compelled them to retreat.

In Demerara, and other islands of the West Indies, serious insurrections broke out amongst the negroes, but were quelled without much sacrifice of human life.

Between the Turks and Greeks a sanguinary, though desultory, warfare was continued. The English government kept aloof from the contest; but lord Byron, and a few others from this country, gave their personal assistance to the Greeks. His lordship, an admirable poet, and altogether one of the most extraordinary men of the age, was attacked by cold and fever in the midst of his operations. The disease baffled all medical aid, and he died at Missolonghi, on the 19th of April, in the 37th year of his age.

A. D. Early in the session, the parliamentary debates  
1825. on the Roman Catholic Question attracted considerable attention. A bill in favour of the Roman Catholics was agreed to by the House of Commons; but, in the interval between its second and third reading, the duke of York expressed, in strong terms, his opposition to the measure; and, ultimately, the bill was thrown out by the peers.

This year, the connections of England with the South American states acquired new strength, and a more decided character: in other respects, notwithstanding some personal changes on the continent of Europe, her political relations, foreign and domestic, remained nearly under the same aspects which they had some time presented.

In the month of January, Ferdinand IV. king of Naples and the two Sicilies, died at the age of 74.—In November, the emperor Alexander of Russia was attacked by an illness, of which he died on the 1st of December, in the forty-eighth year of his age. He was a sovereign who must ever rank, both for public and private virtues, amongst the best of princes. His widow, the empress Elizabeth, never recovered from the shock which she sustained by his death, but died also in the month of May following.—The news of Alexander's decease produced inquietude and apprehen-

sion throughout Europe ; for the character of his expected successor, the grand duke Constantine, had been regarded as ambitious, warlike, and even sanguinary. To the surprise of all, however, it was found that Constantine had renounced the succession ; in consequence of which, his brother, duke Nicholas, was allowed, with little difficulty, to ascend the throne of Russia.—Charles the Xth of France, who had succeeded his brother, Louis the XVIIIth, in the preceding year, was crowned at Rheims, on the 29th of May.

Towards the close of the preceding year considerable changes had taken place in the money market, 1826. and in the state of commercial credit and manufacturing activity throughout Europe, but especially in England. Many plausible schemes and speculations for the investment of capital had given rise to companies for commercial objects, civil embellishments, rail-roads, and mining enterprises, domestic and foreign. This rage for joint-stock companies was ascribed to various causes—a surplus of capital, an excess of paper circulation, vices in the banking system, a spirit of unprincipled adventure, &c. Although some of the new companies bade fair to prove of national utility, others were organized merely for stock-jobbing purposes and private gain, without even the intention of being carried fully into effect. In the midst of these speculations the issue of bank of England notes was considerably restrained. Many of the London banking houses failed, involving in their ruin numerous provincial establishments of a similar description. This occasioned a general panic amongst the commercial and manufacturing classes, and produced serious and extensive mischief through all ranks of the community. Under these circumstances, some parliamentary measures for affording relief were considered of, and a partial return to, or rather increase of, the paper currency, which had formerly been an engine productive of fluctuations in prices, was deemed advisable. More than two years, however, elapsed before the national prosperity, in its trade and commerce, was fully restored. Considerable differences of opinion also prevailed respecting the Corn Laws: the poorer classes easily comprehended that bread was cheap or dear, in proportion to the low or high price of corn ; but they did not so clearly perceive—although the

political economist is fully aware of the fact—that the prices of corn and the prices of labour reciprocally influence each other, and that high wages gave them an advantage in the market when corn was even at its highest price.

Amongst the most important measures of the parliamentary session were Mr. Peel's bills for the simplification and improvement of the Criminal Code. The object of one of these was to consolidate the various acts (encumbering the statute-book and confusing each other) which related to offences against property; that of the other, the removal of certain inconveniences belonging to the administration of the criminal law generally. An act was also passed for consolidating in one statute the different enactments relating to insolvent debtors, and making some changes in several of their provisions.—A new parliament met in November.

England was this year considerably implicated in the affairs of Portugal. Some time previously to the month of May, 1825, don Pedro, the eldest son of the king of Portugal, had caused himself to be proclaimed emperor of Brazil, heretofore a dependency of the parent state. The king found it expedient to acquiesce with this arrangement, and to cede and transfer the assumed imperial sovereignty to his son. The independence of Brazil was, in consequence, acknowledged by the European powers. John VI. king of Portugal, died at Lisbon on the 4th of March, 1826, leaving, in the absence of don Pedro, the heir of the crown, the princess Isabella Maria, his eldest daughter, to act as regent of the kingdom. This arrangement excited an insurrectionary spirit in Portugal, favouring the title of the king's younger son, don Miguel, to the throne. On the other hand, don Pedro, making his election as sovereign of Brazil alone, formally abdicated the crown of Portugal, in favour of his eldest daughter, donna Maria da Gloria, then an infant of seven years of age; continuing the regency during her minority in the hands of her aunt, the princess Isabella Maria. Many of don Miguel's partisans took refuge in Spain, the government of which country refused to acknowledge the regency of Portugal, supported the rebels, and actually countenanced their invasion of that country. It was in this state of affairs that, as announced by his majesty from the throne, the British government determined



neither to commit, nor allow to be committed, from the Spanish territory, any aggression against Portugal. On this occasion, Mr. Canning made one of the most memorable speeches ever delivered in the House of Commons. The determination was, that the regency should be supported at all hazards; and soon afterwards a considerable military force from this country was sent over to Portugal.

An armistice concluded with the Burmese nation, in the autumn of 1825, was soon afterwards broken by the enemy. Nearly in the present year, after a succession of defeats, sustained by the Burmese, a satisfactory and honourable peace was obtained. The Ashantees were also reduced to entire submission.

A. D. 1827. The ravages of death were in 1827 more than usually destructive amongst the great and the noble of the land; and the consequent changes in the state of public affairs were important. On the 5th of January his royal highness the duke of York expired, after a long and severe illness; early in the ensuing month Dr. Pelham, the bishop of Lincoln, died of a cold caught at the duke's funeral; and in the winter, Dr. Tomline, bishop of Winchester, also died. In the month of February the earl of Liverpool, prime minister of England, was attacked by a stroke of apoplexy, from which his political and moral death may be dated, although he did not actually expire till the 4th of December, 1828. This nobleman had been first lord of the treasury ever since the death of Mr. Perceval, in the year 1812. In political principle he had been steady through life: his abilities were rather solid than profound or splendid: he had an excellent capacity for public business; and he had ever been respected for the general integrity of his character. His lordship died at the age of 59.

Mr. Canning, who succeeded lord Liverpool in the office of premier, and also became chancellor of the exchequer, died on the 8th of August. The duke of Wellington succeeded the duke of York as commander in chief of the army; but differing in certain points with the Canning administration, his grace resigned the commandership, and also his seat in the cabinet, but returned to office when lord Goderich (the hon. F. Robinson) had succeeded Mr. Canning as premier. From the commencement of the Canning administration, until the autumn of 1828, the duke of Clarence held the office of

## GEORGE IV.

lord high admiral of England. Desirous, as it was understood, of adopting a more comprehensive system of policy, Mr. Canning entered into a partial coalition with the Whigs; a step which gave great offence in many quarters, and led, as it was supposed, to that severe excitement of his mind which finally caused his death. Educated at Eton and at Oxford, Mr. Canning had, in the early periods of life, acquired much literary distinction. He commenced his political career in 1793, under the auspices of Mr. Pitt. As a public speaker he was distinguished by acuteness of investigation, clearness of arrangement, brilliancy of diction, and pointedness of remark. In public his ambition had raised him many enemies; but in private life he was universally esteemed. Mr. Canning's death occurred in the 58th year of his age. On the 16th of August, his remains were honoured with a public funeral in Westminster Abbey.

One memorable event abroad requires to be noticed. The Turkish government not having acted on the proffered mediation of England, Russia, and France, respecting the affairs of Greece, a formidable fleet of the combined powers entered the harbour of Navarino, where the Turkish and Egyptian squadrons were at anchor. A sanguinary contest ensued, in which the Ottoman force was nearly annihilated. The English also sustained a loss of 75 men killed and 97 wounded; and three of their line-of-battle ships suffered so severely, that, after a temporary repair, they were obliged to come home. This great naval battle, led by sir E. Codrington, the British admiral, was fought on the 20th of October. The grand seignior demanded compensation; but to that demand the ambassadors of the allied states were not allowed to assent; and, no hope of accommodation remaining, they left Constantinople.

A. D. 1828. Lord Goderich having resigned the premiership, the duke of Wellington became first lord of the treasury; and the office of commander in chief was placed in commission. The marquess of Anglesea succeeded the marquess of Wellesley in the lord lieutenantancy of Ireland. The political measures adopted by the new ministry, though firm, were of a decidedly pacific character. Some judicious modifications were effected in the corn laws, the revenue of the country showed a material increase, and a satisfactory feeling predominated among the people.

Early in the year an act of parliament was passed for the repeal of the test and corporation acts.

Notwithstanding a proposed bill in favour of the Roman Catholics had been negatived in the House of Commons in 1827, sir Francis Burdett again brought the subject forward this year, in the form of a motion for a committee of inquiry. The motion, agreed to in the lower, but rejected in the upper house of parliament, led to no result. In Ireland the catholic party was indefatigably active, and obtained the return of Mr. O'Connell, one of their leaders, to parliament. To oppose their proceedings, political associations, under the denomination of Brunswick clubs, were extensively formed throughout England and Ireland.

Peace was preserved with Turkey; but between that power and Russia a sanguinary war was carried on. Russia, assuming new grounds of complaint, made the contest her own, without any reference to the affairs of Greece.

In the summer and autumn of 1827, the princess Isabella Maria was incapacitated by illness from superintending the government of Portugal; in consequence of which don Miguel was appointed by his brother, don Pedro, to act as his lieutenant, until his daughter, donna Maria da Gloria, to whom don Miguel was espoused, should come of age. Great dissensions ensued. Don Miguel visited the court of France, &c. and, at the close of the year, arrived in England, where he succeeded in obtaining the recall of the British troops from Portugal. After his return, he assembled the states of the kingdom, and in some of its provinces and towns he was proclaimed king.—The young queen of Portugal arrived in England, from Brazil, in October. In the following month, don Miguel fractured his thigh, and nearly lost his life, by being thrown from an open carriage.

Amongst the deaths of the year now closing, must be recorded that of the archbishop of Canterbury, in July;—of the queen of Wirtemberg, eldest sister of the king of England, in October;—and of the empress dowager of Russia, and the queen dowager of Saxony, in November.















